

नं० १६९९ क्र दि०
श्री ऐनक वन्ताहमसदिगम्बर जैन
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JAINISM IN RAJASTHAN

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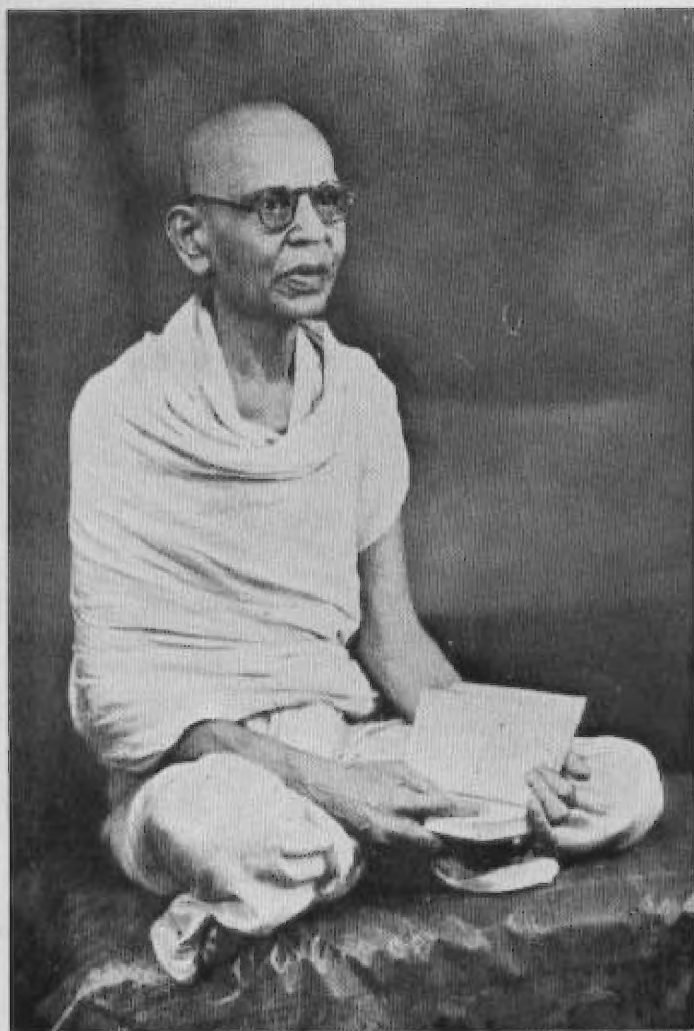
जीवराज जैन ग्रंथमालाका परिचय

सोलापुर निवासी ब्रह्मचारी जीवराज गौतमचंदजी दोशी कई वर्षोंसे संसारसे उदासीन होकर धर्मकार्यमें अपनी वृत्ति लगा रहा थे। सन् १९४० में उनकी यह प्रबल इच्छा हो उठी कि अपनी व्यापारोपाजित संपत्तिका उपयोग विशेष रूपसे धर्म और समाजकी उन्नतिके कार्यमें करें। तदनुसार उन्होंने समस्त देशका परिभ्रमण कर जैन विद्वानोंसे साक्षात् और लिखित सम्मेलनयाँ इस बातकी संग्रह की कि कौनसे कार्यमें संपत्तिका उपयोग किया जाय। शृद्ध मतसंघय कर लेनेके पश्चात् सन् १९४१ के प्रौथम कालमें ब्रह्मचारीजीने तीर्थक्षेत्र गजपंथा (नासिक) के शीतल वातावरणमें विद्वानोंकी समाज एकत्र की और ऊहापोह पूर्वक निर्णयके लिए उक्त विषय प्रस्तुत किया। विद्वत्सम्मेलनके फलस्वरूप ब्रह्मचारीजीने जैन संस्कृति तथा साहित्यके समस्त अंगोंके संरक्षण, उद्धार और प्रचारके हेतुसे 'जैन संस्कृति संरक्षक संघ' की स्थापना की और उसके लिए ३००००) तोत हजारके दानकी घोषणा कर दी। उनकी परिश्रमनिवृत्ति बढ़ती गई, और सन् १९४४ में उन्होंने लगभग २,००,०००) दो लाखकी अपनी संपूर्ण संपत्ति संघको दृष्ट रूपसे अर्पण कर दी। इस तरह आपने अपने सर्वस्वका त्याग कर वि. १९-१-५७ को अत्यन्त सावधानी और समाधानसे समाधिमरणकी आराधना की। इसी संघके अंतर्गत 'जीवराज जैन ग्रंथमाला'का संचालन हो रहा है। प्रस्तुत ग्रंथ इसी ग्रंथमालाका पंचरत्नवां गुण्य है।

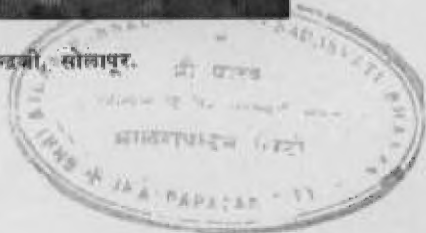
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सोलापुर

मुद्रक
शारदा प्रेस,
मंगलूर-१.

JAINISM IN RAJASTHAN



स्व० ब्र० जीवराज गौतमचन्द्रजी, सोलापूर.



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General Editors' Preface

The Jaina contributions in shaping the cultural trends and in enriching the wealth of civilization of India are quite significant. Jainism is an all-India religion in the sense that Jaina monks and house-holders have played a striking role in different parts of India in shaping the religious, social and political events in different periods of Indian history; and even today, the Jainas who number more than twenty lakhs are scattered all over the country. Jaina caves, temples and holy shrines have their architectural and artistic value; and the *Sāstra Bhaṇḍāras*, i. e., collections of Mss., contain rich literary material which is of special importance for the study of Indian literature and languages.

The Jainological material is so rich and varied and so much extended in time and space that it is well-nigh impossible to take a detailed survey of it at a stretch, in one volume, on an all-India basis. Under the circumstances, there have appeared a number of books which devote themselves to the study of Jainism in its various aspects in different parts of India. A few of them may be noted here: *Studies in South Indian Jainism* by M. S. R. IYYANGAR & B. SHESHGIRI RAO, Madras 1922; *Jainism in North India* by C. J. SHAHA, London 1932; *Mediaeval Jainism* by B. A. SALETORE, Bombay 1938; *Jainism and Karnaṭaka Culture* (originally *Jainism in South India*) by S. R. SHARMA, Dharwar 1940; *Jainism in South India & Some Jaina Epigraphs* by P. B. DESAI, Sholapur 1957; *Jainism in Gujarat* by C. B. SHETH, Bombay 1953; *Jainism in Bihar* by P. C. ROY CHOUDHURY, Patna 1956; *Jainism in Orissa* (in Hindi) by Dr. L. N. SAHU, Aliganj 1959.

These monographs clearly indicate that there is abundant material for the study of Jainism: its past and present, in different areas. There is scope for similar attempts in other areas as well.

In this volume Dr. KAILASH CHANDA JAIN has taken a survey of Jainism in Rājasthān from the earliest times to the present day. Jainism, in his opinion, has proved itself a great cultural and dynamic force under the liberal patronage of the heroic Rajput rulers who were a great support to Jaina monks and laymen who, in their turn, enriched the cultural heritage of the area. Earlier scholars like TOD, OJHA, NAHAR and others have touched this aspect in their accounts of Rājasthān. Lately, Muni JINAVIJAYAJI, Shri

NAHATA, Dr. KASHALIWAL and others have brought to light the wealth of valuable Mss. in Jain Bhaṇḍāras of Rājasthān. Dr. KAILASH CHAND has tried here to present a systematic and authentic account of Jainism in Rājasthān. After mentioning his sources, he recounts the historical role of Jainism under different dynasties of Rājasthān. The Jain monastic and social organisations were subjected to various dividing tendencies which are duly dealt with. He presents a detailed survey of Jain Art, Architecture and Sāstra-Bhaṇḍāras. He also gives an account of Jain monks and statesmen who were a pride of the society.

Such attempts of regional survey of Jainism are quite necessary to assess the value of Jainism as a religious force in the cultural history of our land. The J. S. S. Sangha had already published *Jainism in South India* by Shri P. B. DESAI; and it was at the suggestion of the late lamented Dr. A. S. ALTEKAR that the present work was undertaken for publication in the Jīvarāja Jaina Granthamālā. It was very kind of Dr. KAILASH CHAND that he placed this thesis in its revised form (originally approved for the Ph. D. degree of the Rajasthan University in 1956) at our disposal to include it in the present Series; and for this, the authorities of the Granthamālā offer their sincere thanks to him.

The General Editors record their thanks to the Members of the Trust Committee and Prabandhaṣamiti for their zeal for Jainological research and their generosity in undertaking such publications which have limited sale. It is hoped that works of this type will induce other scholars to undertake the study of Jain history, culture and literature.

PREFACE

The early traces of Jainism in Rajasthan are found from the second century B. C., but from the eighth century onwards, Jainism became a great cultural and dynamic force under the liberal patronage of the heroic Rājput rulers, who extended their helping hand to the Śrāvakas of the neighbouring regions against the marauding foreign invaders. It is on account of this fact that a large number of Jaina temples and Grantha-bhaṇḍāras of the medieval period are found in Rajasthan.

Scholars have already utilised the vast available Jaina sources in writing the history of Rajasthan. Col. JAMES TOD, the pioneer historian of Rajasthan, made use of this material with the guiding help of the Jain Yati GYAN CHAND. Mahāmahopādhyāya Pt. OJHA and Shri P. C. NAHAR took great pains in discovering a large number of invaluable Jaina inscriptions. Muni JINAVIJAYAJI, Shri Agar Chand NAHATA and Dr. Kastoor Chand KASALIWAL brought to light a number of rare manuscripts which proved to be of immense help for reconstructing the history of Indian literature in general and Jaina literature in particular. Dr. Dasharath SHARMA critically examined the Jaina sources in writing the Early History of the Chauhānas. All these sources on Jainism are scattered and there was no independent work so far written. To meet this requirement, the present work was taken up by the author on the suggestion of his esteemed Professor Dr. M. L. SHARMA.

This work is an humble effort on the part of the author to present as clear and lucid as possible a picture of Jainism in Rajasthan. In preparation of this thesis, a lot of new material consisting of inscriptions, sculptures and manuscripts was discovered; and all this throws new light on the existing facts of history. Still there is abundant material lying untouched in different parts of Rajasthan. It is hoped that the present attempt would open new avenues of study and research in this subject.

This work is divided into seven Chapters. The first Chapter deals with the sources of the thesis. The second Chapter is concerned with the historical role of Jainism. In this Chapter, it is pointed out how Jainism flourished under the patronage of different ruling dynasties. The third Chapter is related to the divisions and subdivisions of Jainism. For the first time, it throws new light on the origin of several Saṃghas, Gaṇas,

Gachchhas, Cetes and Gotras among Jains. There are legendary accounts about their origin. All these have been critically examined in the light of the data discovered from several inscriptions and Prastāsis. The fourth Chapter is related to Jaina Art. Certain peculiar features of the Jaina art have been discussed in this Chapter. The fifth Chapter deals with Jaina literature composed in Rajasthan. The sixth Chapter gives a brief description of the Śāstrabhaṇḍāras with special reference to the important and rare manuscripts. The seventh Chapter is concerned with Jaina monks and statesmen, who contributed to the progress of Jainism. In conclusion, the contributions of Jainism to Rajasthan in different spheres have been discussed.

In the preparation of this volume, I am under a deep debt of gratitude to my supervisor Dr. M. L. SHARMA, whose constant guidance has greatly contributed to its early completion. To my examiners Dr. A. S. ALTEKAR and Dr. Nilakantha SASTRI, I am indebted for many valuable suggestions. I also express my profound respects to Pt. CHAIN SUKHIDASH, Principal, Jain Sanskrit College, Jaipur, without whose help this work could not have been completed. My thanks are also due to Shri Agat Chandji NAHATA of Bikaner, who readily offered many valuable suggestions on this work.

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The system of transliteration adopted by me is the same as found in Archaeological Reports. But I have followed the ordinary spelling of proper names, and diacritical marks have been sometimes omitted in case of the place names. The author more than any body else is conscious of many defects and blemishes, specially typographical, which have crept into the book. For these, he craves the indulgence of the readers.

Alwar
25th Nov. 1962

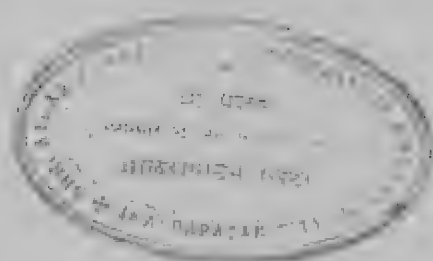
KAILASH CHAND JAIN.

DEDICATED
TO
THE SACRED MEMORY
OF
My Late Professor
Dr. A. S. Altekar

ABBREVIATIONS

1. APLS	=	Archeological Prasthikānāṁ Jaina Lekha Saṁskṛta.
2. AMMA	=	Annual Report, Rajputana Museum, Ajmer.
3. A. S. I. An. Rep.	=	Archaeological Survey of India, Annual Report.
4. CI	=	Corpus Inscriptionum Indiarum.
5. EI	=	Epigraphia Indica.
6. GOS	=	Guthrie's Oriental Series.
7. HOO	=	History of Osāṇāṁ.
8. IA	=	Indian Antiquary.
9. JASB	=	Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal.
10. JMBAS	=	Journal of the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society.
11. JBORS	=	Journal of the Bihar and Orissa Research Society.
12. JGG	=	Jaina Grantha Jaina Granthakāṁ.
13. JGPS	=	Jaina Grantha Prasthikāṁ Saṁgraha.
14. JSAI	=	Jaina Śāhitya aurā Itihāsa.
15. JSLS	=	Jaina Śāhitya Saṁgraha.
16. JSSI	=	Jaina Śāhitya Saṁskṛta Itihāsa.
17. NJI	=	Nāṁ Jaina Inscriptiona.
18. NPP	=	Nāṁ Prasthikāṁ Patraṁ.
19. PLS	=	Prasthikā Lekha Saṁgraha.
20. PRAS. WU	=	Progress Report of Archaeological Survey, Western Circle.
21. PS	=	Prasthikā Saṁgraha.
22. RB	=	Rāṣṭhāṁ Rāṣṭhā.
23. RJSBIS	=	Rāṣṭhāṁ Jaina Śāhitya Saṁskṛta Itihāsa.
24. RBE	=	Sacred Books of the East.
25. RJM	=	Rāṣṭhāṁ Bhagvān Mahāvīra.
26. SP	=	Śāhitya Patraṁ.
27. SVRSBG	=	Śāhitya Vījaya Rāṣṭhāṁ Śūri Śāhitya Saṁgraha.

JAINISM IN RAJASTHAN



JAINISM IN RAJASTHAN

CHAPTER I

SOURCES

Jainism has played an important role in the history of Rajasthan from the earliest times to the present day. It was not only patronised by the rulers and members of the ruling families, but it received also the warm support and had an appeal to the heart of the masses. The contributions of Jainism are apparent in all aspects of the cultural heritage of Rajasthan which abounds in Jain antiquities. There are numerous Jain temples which are fine specimens of art and architecture and have beautiful sculptures. Numerous Jain inscriptions unfold the history of this land. Jain monks tried for the social uplift of the masses; and they also enriched the local languages by their literary works. But these sources are widely scattered and many of them have remained unexplored. No work has been written so far to trace out the history and influence of Jainism in Rajasthan. To elucidate this subject, an attempt has, therefore, been made in this thesis by using all scattered materials in a comprehensive and correlated manner.

These sources may be broadly divided under these heads: (1) Archaeology, (2) Literature, and (3) Writings of the foreigners.

(1) **ARCHAEOLOGY:** (a) **Epigraphy:** The inscriptions form the most reliable source of our information. There are discovered by me about two hundred Jain inscriptions in the various parts of Rajasthan and over a thousand have been already discovered by other scholars mainly by GAUMSILAKAR HIRACHAND OJHA and PURAN CHAND NAHAR. The earliest inscription seems to be belonging probably to the fifth century B.C.¹ They are incised on rocks, pillars and images, both of stone and metal. They are written in Sanskrit, Prākṛit and Rājasthānī and sometimes in a mixed language. The inscriptions upto 600 A.D. are in Brāhmī script, those from 600 to 900 A.D. mostly in the Kuṣāṇa form of it, and the remaining are written in Devanagari script. A good many of them throw a flood of light on the religious, social and political conditions of the periods under review.

1. *Prākrita Pāṭhaṇī Lipiśilā*, p. 2. According to Dr. Sircar, it is not a Jain inscription but his views do not seem to be tenable; See JBORR, March 1954, p. 8.

In some of them the names of the contemporary rulers and their ministers have been mentioned and the genealogies of the ruling dynasties are given.

These inscriptions are chiefly valuable for the religious history of the period. They give us information about the Jaina Church organisation which was divided into several branches such as *Saṅgha*, *Gaṇa* and *Gacchhika*. A complete and connected history of the *Gacchhikas* is impossible without their help. They mention names of the teachers of the various *Gacchhikas*, inauguration ceremonies of the numerous temples etc.; and the inscriptions tell us when the several Jaina castes and their *Gotras* came into existence.

(b) *Monuments*: The old Jaina temples and images are another important source of religious history. They show the extent and popularity of Jainism in Rajasthan at different periods and also indicate the stage which the Jaina architecture and iconography had reached.

(c) *LITERATURE*: (a) *Literary works*: The earliest literature of Jainism is devoted exclusively to religion and philosophy. The *Kaṭha-sūtra*, *Āśvaśva-sūtra* and *Uttarāśvaśva-sūtra* represent a very early period of Jainism. The Jaina literary works which were written in Rajasthan belong, however, to a later period. They throw much light on the condition of Jainism in this state. The *Jambhīyāpannatti* of Padmanandi written in about the tenth century A.D. at Bārā in Kotah State, *Karṇasūcati* of Uddyotana written at Jalore in 1179 A.D., *Praṇatyaśrībhāṣya* of Jayānanda written in 1177 A.D., *Garvagyaṇasūcatkāṇḍa Kāvya* of Somachārīna Gāṇī written in 1815, 1841 and *Diṅṇaga-Mahābhāṣya* of Meghaviṣaya of the 18th century are of special importance.

(b) *Historical Writings*: There are some ancient historical writings from which we may draw certain conclusions after their critical examination. The *Dattakāṇḍa* and *Trikūṭapāṇḍitaśrīparvata-shaṅkha* of Hemachandra are useful for the history of Jainism under the Chālukyas. The *Prabhācandra-śaṅkha* of Prabhācandra Sūri written in A.D. 1301 and *Parvataśrīparvataśaṅkha* of Rājasekhara written in 1815, 1403 contain numerous interesting anecdotes about several Jaina monarchs and saints. The *Pañcāśikāśaṅkha* written in the 16th century by Jinabhadra and *Pañcāśikāśaṅkha* written by Cāyapa-samaya in 1815, 1568 are useful for the history of the faith during this period. The *Devanāgari* of Devanāga written in 1815, 909 throws a great

deal of light on the origin of the *Saṅghas* in the *Diyambhara* church. The *Upadeśavaliya* written in *~* 1395 is useful for Jaina history.¹ The *Varṇanāṭhāvalīya* *Varṇanāṭh* of Jhapāla Upādhyāya written in *~* 1401 is a reliable source of history about the lives of the Jaina saints. The *Karmasāntar* *Varṇanāṭh* *Kṛtānt* of Jayasoma of the 17th century supplies us a mass of information about the life of Kāma Chandra and the condition of Jainism in the Bikaner State.

(c) *Prakāśis*: The *Prakāśis* are as important as the inscriptions, but they do not belong to the early period. Probably, the practice of writing the *Prakāśis* started from about the 8th or the 9th century, but very few specimens have survived. From about the 12th or 13th century, it became the general practice. They invariably mention the time when they were written. They refer to the rulers in whose time they were composed. They give us the information about the various existing *Saṅghas*, *Gamas* and *Gachchhis* and their teachers. They mention the genealogy of the donor, his caste and *Gotra*. They indicate the liberality of the people, which was responsible for the preparation of so many copies of the manuscripts. These *Prakāśis* are the most valuable source for reconstructing the history of Jaina Literature in particular and of Indian Literature in general.

(d) *Paṇḍvalis*: The *Paṇḍvalis* form some trustworthy source of history. They contain description of the incidents from the lives of the various saints who lived in different periods. The important *Paṇḍvalis* are the *Kharanagachchhi-paṇḍvali*, *Taptachchhi-paṇḍvali*, *Mūlānagachchhi-paṇḍvali*, etc. They mention the origin of the different sects into which, in course of time, the Jaina church organization was divided. The information given in them is not always absolutely correct and precise; and they are very helpful, provided they are critically used.

(e) *Varṇāvalis*: Some *Varṇāvalis* are helpful for the history. They give the origin of the different castes and their *Gotras*. They also give a lot of insight into the lives of some well-known persons born in certain Jaina communities. Sometimes, they yield important information regarding the political history of the period. The remaining of Jodhpur

1. It has not been published yet. Muni JESU SEVENACH has taken much help from it in writing the book namely *Śrī Bhagavān Pīṭhāvalīkā li Pāṇḍvalīkā li Tīkṇā*.

from Shatshahi by Mēladeva with the help of Tejā Gaddhiyā is known to us from a Varāṇsīvalī.¹

(f) *Tirthumālas* and *Tirthavāṇanas*: These are recorded accounts of the saints who went along with the Caturvidha Saṅgha (fourfold Saṅgha) for the pilgrimage from place to place. They used to travel sometimes alone by themselves. The *Tirthumāla* of Jinaprabhāśinī, written in about the 14th century A.D. and the *Tirthumāla* of Saubhāgyavimṇa are important from the point of view of the biographies of certain Jain saints. They contain an account of the construction of the temples and the installation of the images. The *Varāṇas* of Kṛṣṇaśaśi gives an account of the destruction started to the images of Sirohi by Turmanābhīn.²

(g) *Letters and Documents*: Letters and documents are a valuable source of contemporary history. Considerable correspondence passed between the Jain Aśvāryas and the rulers of Rajputana in medieval times. The rulers also allotted lands to the Jain Aśvāryas for the construction of temples. The relevant documents are in the possession of the Jain monks. Impressed by the services of the Jain statesmen, the ruling chiefs of the different states of Rajasthan granted them certain *Sanads* or grants which are in the possession of their descendants.

(h) *Vijāpapatras*: These are the invitations, sent to Jain Aśvāryas by Jain Saṅghas of a particular community for the next Caturvīśa. These letters are also meant to move for the acts of commission and omission of the members of a Saṅgha and to convey their good wishes for the whole of humanity. These are useful from several points of view. They usually give, in a pictorial form, the description of the locality from which they are issued. The local events given in them are of considerable value for the local history. They provide us with interesting details regarding arts and crafts, professions etc. of the localities with which they are concerned. The pictures given in them are useful for the history of Jain art. They also throw a lot of light on the social and religious conditions of the period. They have been issued from the cities such as Jodhpur, Bikaner, Udaipur, and Sirohi.

(i) *Illustrated Manuscripts*: Several illustrated copies of the manuscripts have been preserved in the Jain Grantha Bhaṇḍārās at Jaisalmer.

1. *Asiatica* Vol. 2 No. 6, p. 249. 2. *Bhāṇava Jaina Lekha Saṅgraha*, p. 27.

Bikaner, Jaipur, Nagaur etc. They indicate the art and culture of the people. They also vividly depict the artistic and religious achievements of the people; and as they are dated, they enable us to draw in outline the history of Jaina paintings in the wider perspective of Indian painting.

(3) **WRITINGS OF THE FOREIGNERS:** The writings of Greeks, of Yuan Chwang and Arab travellers, which throw very interesting light on the religious conditions existing from the very early times to the tenth century A.D. have been utilised in this thesis, because they make frequent references to Jainism in Western India.

CHAPTER II

HISTORICAL ROLE OF JAINISM

The region now known as Rajasthan was, according to certain geologists, once a deep sea. As a result of certain sudden seismic changes, the sea disappeared and its bottom rose up. Of course, this must have happened in very remote past. This region has always had its importance in Indian history. Bairath in the Jaipur district is mentioned in the *Mahābhārata* as the place where Arjuna served the local chief for a long time. It was a place of importance in the time of Aśoka who inscribed his important directions on a piece of rock there. Mount Ābū and the town of Bhīṣmāla have each a history of its own. Chittore has played an important part in our political history since the sixth century A.D. Mander also was equally well-known till Jodhpur became the capital of the region. There are several other places which were centres of art, learning and general culture before the erst-while states of Rajasthan were set up.

It seems that in the time of Aśoka, Bairath which occupies a central position in Rajasthan, was selected as the provincial centre for the propagation of Buddhism (but no trace of this religion has survived except the Bhāhu edict and a few statues found here and there). The dominant religions of this area have been Hinduism and Jainism. Hinduism must have spread from the north not long after the Aryan penetration of India. It has existed here since the dawn of Vedic civilization with all its later forms. Jainism

1. *Mahābhārata*, Vol. 3. Virāṭa Parvan.

was known in Rajasthan since the time of its very inception. Of course, it must have had ups and downs but it had a continual existence from the eighth century A.D. onwards. We find sufficient material indicating that Jainism had reached every corner of Rajasthan. Its followers were always comparatively richer and more influential. Its doctrines are harmless and non-aggressive. It has, therefore, commanded respect even from those who did not regularly follow it.

JAINISM DURING THE PERIOD OF MAHĀYĀNA: The historic period of Indian History starts nearly from about the time of Mahāyāna. Actually, Jainism remained confined to the east at this time though its contact with Rajasthan is known from the later sources. There is the inscription of 1296 A.D. which begins with a verse which tells us that Mahāyāna in person came to Śrināga.¹ This is supported by *Virṣala Mahāyāna*, a work of about the thirteenth century A.D. which gives an account of the dissemination of Jainism in Śrināga. Disgusted with the behaviour of the Brāhmanas of Śrināga, Gaṇatma Gaṇadhara went to Kaśmīr where he was converted to Jainism by Mahāyāna. After his return to Śrināga, he converted the Vaisyas to Jainism and composed the *Rajasthan, Bhagavatsūtra, Mahāyāna, paramitā* and other works.² An inscription of 1369 A.D. found on the door of the chief shrine in Jivamasyāni Śrī Mahāyāna Jaina temple at Mangasthala *malasthala*, 4½ miles west of Ābū road shows that Lord Mahāyāna visited *Virṣala* and an image was consecrated by Śrī Kṛṣṇa Gaṇadhara during the 37th year of the life of Mahāyāna.³ These statements are of a very late time and therefore, cannot be easily relied on. But from them, it can be inferred that in the 13th century A.D. Jainism was considered a very old religion in Rajasthan.

The most substantial evidence for the existence of Jainism in Rajasthan of the 5th century A.D. is the Raṇaś inscription,⁴ the oldest inscription so far discovered. This inscription mentions the name of the place Mājhamikā which may be identified with Mādhyanikā near Chittore mentioned by Parāśara in *Mañjūśāstra*.⁵ At present it is known as Nagar. The *Alpharidī* branch of the Jaina church organization mentioned in the

1. PRAS., WC., 1907, p. 35.

2. *Śrināga-purāṇa*, pp. 603-602.

3. APSLS., No. 48.

4. NŚI., No. 402.

5. *The History of Rajasthan*, Vol. I, p. 110.

Sthānastika of the *Kalpasūtra* became famous after the place name of Mājharukā. Priyagambhā, the second pupil of Sushila and Suprabuddha, founded this branch in about the 1st century B.C.¹ An inscription of about third century B.C. has been discovered at this place. Its meaning is as follows 'constructed for the well-being of all living beings.'² This inscription may be probably of the Jains. From these evidences, it seems that there were Jains in Rajasthan at this time.

JAINISM UNDER THE MAURYAS: Jainism continued to make gradual progress under the Mauryas. From the strong Jain literary traditions and epigraphical evidence, Chandragupta Maurya is considered to be the Jain emperor.³ He undoubtedly ruled over a vast empire. As Aśoka is credited in his inscriptions with only one conquest viz., that of Kalinga, it is reasonable to hold that the empire over which Aśoka ruled was mostly the creation of his grandfather, Chandragupta. The inscription of Aśoka, discovered at Bairāt in the centre of Rajasthan, clearly proves that this region was also ruled by Chandragupta.

Chandragupta made great efforts for the dissemination of Jainism. He is said to have performed the consecration ceremony of the images of many temples. In a village of Ghānghārī, at a distance of 18 miles from Jodhpur, there is an old temple of Pārśvanātha. In A.D. 1662, many images were discovered in the tank of this place. By chance, the poet Sundaragopi went on pilgrimage to this place and saw the inscription on the image and examined it. He is said to have read the inscription by the miraculous power given to him by the goddess Ambikā. He immediately composed the poem on it. According to it, Samatī Chandragupta made the golden image of Pārśvanātha and its *pratiṣṭhā* was performed probably through Śruta-Kevālī Bhadrabāhu.⁴ This evidence is of a very late period and so there is much doubt about its correctness.

After Chandragupta's abdication, his son Bindusāra came to the throne. He seems to have followed the faith of his father. Aśoka succeeded Bindusāra on the throne. His early faith seems to be Jainism, the faith of his forefathers; but afterwards, he became a Buddhist by the influence of the

1. SBE., Vol. 22, p. 293.

2. *Udaipur Rājya ki Itihās*, p. 264.

3. *The Early History of India*, p. 154. (See also P. N. 3.)

4. *Bhagavān Pārśvanātha kī Paramparā kī Tithitā*, p. 273.

Buddhist saint Tishyarakshita and his wife. When he was converted to Buddhism, he was still tolerant towards other religions, especially to Jainism. He built cave dwellings of the Barabar Hills near Gaya for the Ājivikas, more or less a sect of the Jains. There are frequent references to liberality for the Ājivikas and Nāgārjūnas, the Jain sects, in his inscriptions. This clearly shows that next to Buddhism, he was the follower of Jainism, the religion of his ancestors:

When Kumāra lost his claim to the throne of Magadha on account of his blindness, his son Samprati was declared as the rightful successor by Aśoka. The existence and succession of Samprati, the grandson of Aśoka, although not verified by epigraphic records, is supported by a considerable body of traditions, both of Jains and Buddhists.¹ Under the influence of Subhastin, the leading saint of the Jain community under Mahāgiri, Samprati was converted to Jainism. He tried to spread Jainism by every means in his power, working as hard for Jainism as Aśoka had done for Buddhism. He is, therefore, regarded as a Jain Aśoka. According to Jain scriptures, he had decided to raise his mouth in the morning, only after hearing the news of a new temple having been built. Besides, he got all the old and existing temples repaired and set up into all of them the idols made of gold, stone, silver, brass and of a mixture of fine metals and performed their 'Anjanashtikā' ceremony, i. e., declared them fit for worship. Within three years and a half, he got one hundred and twenty five thousand new temples built, 16 thousand repaired, twelve and a half millions of idols consecrated and 95 thousand metal idols prepared.² This seems to be only a hyperbolic description. But he seems to have built a number of Jain temples even in Rajasthan which was included in his empire. He is said to have celebrated the installation ceremony of the image of Padmaprabha at a place named Ghatghat, through Ārya Subhasti in v. 8, s. 203.³ Tōn attributes an old temple at Kumbhalnara to Samprati. This temple is described by Tōn in this way. "The design of this temple is truly classic. It consists only of the sanctuary which has a vaulted dome and a colonnaded portico all round. The architecture is undoubtedly Jain, which is as distinct in character

1. VINCENT SMITH: *Early History of India*, pp. 292-293 (See also P. X 1.)

2. T. L. SHAHA: *Ancient India*, Vol. 2, pp. 293-294.

3. *Bhagavata Purāṇa* in *Parvata* in *Itihāsa*, p. 273.

from the Brahmanical as their religion. There is a chasteness and simplicity in the specimen of monotheistic worship, affording a wide contrast to the elaborately sculptured shrines of the Śaivas and other polytheists of India. The extreme want of decoration best attests its antiquity, enabling us to attribute it to that period when Samprati Rājā, of the family of Chandragupta, was paramount sovereign over all these regions. The proportions and forms of the columns are especially distinct from the other temples, being slight and tapering instead of massive, the general characteristic of Hindu architecture, while the projecting cornices which would absolutely deform shafts less slight are peculiarly indicative of the Takshai architect."¹

Dr. BRANDARKAR contends that Tod is wrong in ascribing this temple to the second century B.C. It is quite improbable that the Jaina temple may have been designed by Grecian artists or that the taste of the artists among the Rājaputs may have been modelled after the Grecian. It appears to have been left in an unfinished condition. Tod however is quite wrong in ascribing this temple to A.D. 800. The style of its pillars closely resembles that of Tejapāla's temple at Dehavādā on mount Abu. The construction of this temple cannot be possibly placed earlier than the 13th century A.D. and was probably later even than this.² Any how, the local people believed that it was extremely old.

At Nādālāi there is a Jaina temple dedicated to Ādinātha. On the seat of the image is engraved an inscription dated V. S. 1686 which speaks of its being rebuilt by the whole Jaina community of Nādālāi. The temple was originally erected by Samprati.³ In the 17th century, the Jainas at Nādālāi believed that the temple was built by Samprati, so there was an old tradition to this effect.

Besides this, Samprati took other steps for the propagation of Jainism. From the Jaina books,⁴ we know that he started a Sangha from Ujjain to Samunajaya in the company of Suhasti with 3000 Śramanas. This Sangha must have passed through southern Rajasthan. He is also said to have convoked a council for the propagation of Jaina religion under Suhasti. He sent out religious teachers for the propagation of Jainism.

1. *Annals and Antiquities of Rajasthan*, Vol. 2, pp. 779—780.

2. PRAS. WO., 1901 p. 41.

3. NIE, Vol. 1. No. 836.

4. *Udhagadesi Pāramanūthas ki Panchangadi Lā Hishon*, pp. 289—290.

ACCOUNT OF THE GREEK WRITERS OF WESTERN INDIA: The Greek writers supply very valuable information about the Indian philosophers whom Alexander met. STRABO makes mention of two sects of philosophers one called the Brachmanes and the other Germanes.¹ Brachmanes represent the Brāhmanas and the Germanes is evidently a corruption of Samanas which represents the Sanskrit *Jamuna* (a Jaina ascetic). But the question is who these people were. Some say that these are Buddhist saints, but they seem to be Jaina saints because they have been described as naked, and they are called by the name Gymnosophists. Nakedness is a special characteristic of Jaina monks. PLINY says that their philosophers whom they call Gymnosophists, are accustomed to remain in one posture with their eyes immovably fixed on the sun from dawn to dusk and to stand on the burning sands all day long now on one foot and now on the other.² One DIONYSIUS says that these sages went about naked, inflicted hardships on themselves and were held in highest honour and when invited, they did not visit anybody but requested the persons concerned to come to them if they wanted to participate in their conversion.³ This description applies to Digambara Jaina monks.

The Greek observers found women studying philosophy along with men. But they all led a life of extreme austerity.⁴ And as the Brāhmanas did not generally admit their women to their philosophy, these women must have been, therefore, probably the nuns of the Jaina church.

Among these sages, one was Kālnoo who accompanied Alexander probably to instruct him in the matters of religion. His real name, according to PLUTARCH, was Splines; and he received the name Kālnoo among the Greeks because in saluting the persons, he used the word Kalā. It is probably the Sanskrit form Kalyāṇa which is commonly used in addressing a person and signifies good, just or distinguished. When he became ill at Pasargadi, this being the first sickness he ever had, he put an end to his life in his seventy third year without heeding the entreaties of the king.⁵ This type of voluntary death is specially found among the Jainas. The *Ratnakaranda Śrāvasthikāra* (Chap. 4) of Samantabhadra (about second century A.D.) dilates on *saṁskṛānti* which consists in abandoning the body for the accumulation of merit in calamities, famines, extreme old age and incurable diseases.

1. MEUNIER: *Ancient India*, p. 66; F. N. I. 2. Ibid. p. 72. 3. Ibid. p. 73.

The Indian sages, according to the Greek writers, have been divided into two categories (1) the Brāhmanas and (2) Śramanas. The Brāhmanas succeeded by right of birth to the kind of divine wisdom as to a priesthood. They are one family, the descendants of one father and mother. The Śramanas, on the other hand, are taken from all Indian castes differently from all who wish to give themselves to the study of divine beings.¹ These sages were probably Jaina saints, because there was no question of caste restriction in Jainism.

These naked Samneci practise truth, make predictions about future and worship a kind of pyramid beneath which they think the bones of some divinity lie buried.² This practice is also noticed among the Jainas who used to construct the *stūpas*, specimens of which are found at Mathura.

According to the Greek writers, the society was divided into the five classes in accordance with the occupations. Some cultivate the soil; very many follow war and other trades. The nobles and richest manage public affairs, administer justice and sit in the council with the kings. A fifth class devotes itself to the philosophy prevalent in the country which almost assumes the form of religion and the members always put an end to their lives by burning themselves on funeral pile.³

The characteristics and practices of these sages indicate that they were Jaina saints. Jainism was prevalent in Western India on the eve of the coming of the Greeks in India. The Jaina monks and nuns were found in such a large number that they caught the attention of the foreigners. If it is in the border provinces, it may have been in existence even in the adjacent region like Rajasthan.

Jainism continued to flourish in Western India under the foreigners like the Scythians in the first century B.C. The great Jaina saint namely Kālakāchārya wandered in Saurashtra, Āvanti and most probably in the western parts of Rajasthan and taught Jainism to the people. Kālakāchārya had a sister called Sarasvatī who joined the convent. The king Gardabhillā of Ujjainī was fascinated by her beauty and ravished her. Kālakāchārya being enraged, went to the west of Sindh and lived with a Sāhi (Śaka) chief over whom he obtained great influence by means of his astrological

1. MEADWOLD: *Ancient India*, p. 169.

2. Ibid, 163.

3. *Ancient India as described by MEGASTHENES & ARRIAN*, p. 136.

knowledge. Gradually, he came to learn that his patron and 95 other chiefs who lived in the same locality all obeyed a common overlord. This overlord might have been Mithradates, the Great and his patron Maues. That Mithradates and Maues lived in the first century B.C., is known to us from numismatic evidence. Kalakichāya persuaded his patron to invade the kingdom of Gandhārā with the aid of his 96 fellow chiefs and himself joined the army which marched along Sindhu and Gujarāt and besieged Ujjain. Ujjain fell and Śakas established their supremacy in Malwa. At that time, Malwa also included the Southern part of Rajasthan as we know both from the epigraphical¹ and numismatic² evidences.

After 27 years of Śaka occupation over Ujjain, Vikramāditya, son of Gandhārā, regained his kingdom by expelling the Śakas. It is clear both from the numismatic and epigraphic evidences that the Mālayas at this time under Vikramāditya occupied the south eastern Rajasthan. In the age of Vikramāditya, Jainism was a living and active religion; and it influenced the life of the people. Some of the Jaina sources claim Vikramāditya as a convert to Jainism. Thus Siddhasena Divākara having caused the breaking of the phallic symbol of Mahākālā in Ujjain and the appearance of the image of Pārśvanatha enlightened Vikramāditya.³ According to the Digambara Jaina Pargāvali Vikramāditya played as a child for eight years; for sixteen years, he roamed over the country; for fifteen years, he performed sacrifices, being given over to false doctrine; for forty years, he was devoted to the religion of the Jaina and then reached heaven.⁴ These accounts strikingly resemble the stories of Portuguese Jesuit fathers who claimed that Albur had embraced Christianity. They contain the truth that Vikramāditya had respect and admiration for Jainism.

In his time, the great temple of Śrī Mahāvīra named Yaksha Vasati was built on the top of Suvarnagiri near Jātanapura by a merchant but the fact that it was during the reign of and in the territory of Vikramāditya, shows that the King, if not a Jaina, was at least sympathetically inclined towards Jainism.⁵

1. Śaṅkhaśrīdhara's pillar inscription of the third century A.D. (Udaipur state), see EI, Vol. 27, p. 286.
2. ASIR Vol. VI, pp. 160—183.
3. *The Pargāvali Samuchchaya*, p. 46, 106.
4. *JA*, Vol. 20, p. 347.
5. THIRUVAN LAI SWAMI: *Ancient India*, III, pp. 381—82.

In about the first century B.C., Harshapura appears to be in a highly prosperous condition. It may be identified with modern Haraura near Pushkara. The city has been described in the Jaina books¹ in the following manner, "It has three hundred Jaina temples, four hundred mansions, eighteen hundred Brāhmana houses, thirty six thousand *Paśā* houses, nine hundred parks and gardens, nine hundred wells and seven hundred houses of charity." The name of the king is mentioned Subhatapāla, but he is not known to history. This statement is based on the works written in about the 17th century A.D. and, therefore, cannot be easily relied upon. But there is no doubt that from about the eighth century A.D., this place was a great centre of Jainism. Harshapura Gachchha originated from this place in about the 12th century A.D.

JAINISM DURING THE KUSHANA PERIOD: The temples, images, stone railings, sculptures and the Jaina inscriptions of the Kushāna period discovered at Mathura throw considerable light on the political and social history of North India. The inscriptions are full of the information as to the organisation of the Jaina church in sections known as *Āgama*, *Kola* and *Jāhāna* and supply excellent illustrations of the Jaina books. Both inscriptions and sculptures gave interesting details proving the existence of the Jaina nuns and the influential position in the Jaina church occupied by women. If Jainism had a strong hold in Mathura, it could not have been unknown in the parts of Rajasthan adjacent to Mathura.

Jainism also spread much in the second century A. D. by the efforts of Samantabhadra who was a great Digambara Jaina scholar. According to the Śrāvastī Belagola inscription dated 1070 Saka era, he beat the drum (literally invited opponents to refute him) at Pāṭaliputra, in Mithlā, in Sindha, in Thakka country (the Punjab) and came to Kāncī in the south and thence came to Karmāvaka.² This statement seems to be based on old traditions. The Mālayas in the second century A. D. were ruling over the south eastern Rajasthan. Even in the time of Samudragupta, they were almost in the same area. Thus, Samantabhadra seems to have preached Jainism in a part of Rajasthan in the second century A. D. At about this time, it might have spread to Mewar region where Jaina traditions go back to very early times.

1. TRIMBHAVAN LAL SHAH: *Ancient India*, III, p. 140.

2. HIRALAL JAIN: *Jaina-Sūtrāccharyāśāstra*, Pt. I, No. 34, p. 192.

JAINISM DURING THE GUPTA PERIOD: There are records of the Gupta period which show that the Jains used to respect the Hindus and their teachers. The Guptas were orthodox Hindus but the best tribute to their administration has been paid by a contemporary Jaina record.¹ An inscription of 452 A.D. of Mathura during the reign of Kumāragupta I records that an image was set up by Śmṛtīdhvā, the daughter of Bhartṛihva and the house-wife of the ferryman, Grāhastīrapīlāt at the command of Dantilāchārya of the Kuṣṭha Gana and the Vidyādhārī Śākhā.² The Udaigiri cave inscription of the reign of this ruler of 425–26 A.D. also states how one Śākara caused an image of the Tīrthaṅkara Pārśvanātha to be made and set up at the mouth of the cave.³ The Kabaṭa stone pillar inscription of Skandagupta of 460–61 A.D. commemorates the installation of five images in a column by a certain Madra.⁴ Even in Rajasthan, the remains of Gupta Jaina temple have been discovered. In Dec. 1949, M. S. VASNA, the joint Director General of Archaeology, Government of India, New Delhi, visited Keshoripatan at the request of National Heritage Preservation Society, Bundi. He was of opinion that there must be buried town of Keshoripatan which can be traced back to Gupta period. The bricks with the characteristics of the Gupta period have been discovered at a depth of about 25 feet from the surface of the ground. One *Kaṭharikaṭha patta* of Jaina mythology and other Jaina sculptures have been found out here. All these facts indicate that there was a Jaina temple here in the Gupta period.

RECORD OF YUANCHAWANG: That Jainism flourished from Tarda to the remotest south in the seventh century A. D. is known to us from the writings of Yuanchawang. In Rajasthan, he visited Bhinamāl and Bairāt. From his account, it is clear that Buddhism was in decadence at these places. At Bhinamāl, there was only one Buddhist monastery with about 100 brethren who were adherents of the Hīnayānist Sāvāsīvāda School. The population was mostly of the non-Buddhist, and only a few persons believed in Buddhism. There were some tens of Deva temples and there were the adherents of different religions.⁵ At Bairāt also, there were eight Buddhist monasteries in a bad state of ruin with a few Buddhists. There

1. CH, Vol. III, p. 268.

2. EI, XXXVIII, pp. 210–211.

3. CH, Vol. III, p. 259–60.

4. CH, III, p. 66.

5. THOMAS WATERS: *On Yuanchawang's travels in India*, p. 249.

were about ten Deva temples and the number of non-Buddhists was about 1200.¹ From this account, it may be inferred that there were other religions such as Brahmanism and Jainism in existence along with Buddhism at these places and flourishing.

In the temple of Hasanagadha, a pair of images of Vishubhadra and his son have been found underground on which is incised an inscription of 687 A.D. This definitely indicates the popularity of Jainism in Rajasthan at the close of the 7th century A.D.

Jainism spread in Rajasthan in the 8th or 9th century A.D. by the efforts of the great scholar named Haribhadrasuri who was the priest of the king Jituri of Chittore. In his work *Samantichakrāvalī*, he throws some light on the condition of Jainism. We are told how a person named Silhin was invited. His father Brahmadatta who was the minister caused presents to be distributed and a festival to be celebrated in the Jaina temple in honour of the forthcoming ordination of his son, Silhin. When the day fixed for it came round, he was carried in a palanquin with great pomp.² The rivalry between Jainism and Buddhism was very keen in his time.

RECORD OF THE MUSLIM TRAVELLERS ABOUT JAINISM IN WESTERN INDIA: Some information about Jainism is available in the writings of the Muslim travellers who visited Western India in about the eighth or ninth century A.D. Unfortunately, they were not enlightened observers and suffered from a confusion and ascribed every image, temple and sage to Buddhism which is not necessarily correct. The image of Buddha became so popular with them that even the temple of the Sun was believed to be that of Buddha by Bīḍhārī.³ Even the European scholars who translated their works, could not distinguish between Jainism and Buddhism.

Abu Zaidul writes: "In India, there are persons who in accordance with their professions wander in the woods and mountains and rarely communicate with the rest of mankind. Sometimes, they have nothing to eat but herbs and fruits of the forest. Some of them go about naked, others stand naked with the face turned to the sun, having nothing on but panther's skin. In my travels, I saw a man in the position I have described, sixteen

1. Ibid. p. 360.

2. APJLS, No. 366.

3. *Samantichakrāvalī*, Intr., p. LIII, Text p. 187-88.

4. *The History of India as told by its own people* Vol. 4, p. 504.

years afterwards, I turned to that country and found him in the same posture. What astonished me was that he was not enclosed by the nest of the Snake. Nakedness is the creed found among the Jains though it was not unknown among the Hindus. Most probably, some of them were Jainas sâma.

Aśvat Bījā, an author of the 13th century, was not a traveller but he compiled his work from the writings of the earlier travellers. He on the information derived from Māsarta Muhallīl, author of *Ajābuldan*, writes that in the city named Sāmra, near Sindhu, there lived infidels who do not slaughter animals nor do they eat flesh, fish or eggs, but there are persons who eat animals that have fallen precipices or that have been gored to death but they do not eat at once that have died a painful death.¹ This type of information indicates that there were two kinds of people namely Buddhists and Jainas.

JAINISM UNDER THE RAJPUTS: Jainism made a striking progress under the rule of the heroic Rājaput rulers from the eighth century A.D. No doubt, they were mostly the followers of Vaiṣṇavism and Śaivism, but they adopted a generous attitude and felt actively interested even in the progress of Jainism. The popularity of Jainism in the Rājaput States of Gujaraṭ, Malwa and Rājputana was due to the magnetic influence of the powerful personalities like Hemachandra, the Śaṅkara of the Jāmas. The rulers of this time were served by some highly talented Jaina statesmen who could not but evoke sympathy in their masters for Jainism by their loyal and valuable services. The merchants of this class also contributed considerably to the growth and development of their religion by constructing temples and images.

UNDER PRATHARAS: Jainism flourished in Rajasthan under Pratihāras. There is a temple of Mahāvīra at Osī, constructed in the time of Vatsarāja.² This Vatsarāja was contemporary of the author Jisasa who mentions him in the *Harivamśapurāṇa* in 783 A.D. In about 792 A.D. Nāgārāja, the son of Vatsarāja, became the ruler of Gurjaradeśa. His popular name was Āma. From the *Prabhāvakāhaṇṭa*, it is clear that Āma and Nāgārājloka are one and the same ruler. He married the daughter of Vanika whose descendants became Jains and one of them namely Karmasīna restored the Samudhaya

1. *The History of India as told by its own people* Vol. 1, p. 8.

2. *Ibid.* Vol. 1, p. 97.

3. A.S.I., no. Ref. 1908-09, p. 108.

Pitha in 155- A.D.¹ He honoured the Jaina teacher Bappasuri and in accordance with his instructions constructed the Jaina temples at several places. In about 870 A.D., Mihirabhoja became the ruler who also patronized Jainism under the influence of Namasuri and Gvendhasuri, the disciples of Bappasuri. Kakkela was the Pratihara ruler of Mandor near Jodhpur. He was a Sanskrit scholar and patron of Jainism. From the Ghagiyāla inscription of 804 of A.D., it is clear that he constructed a Jaina temple.²

JAINISM UNDER THE CHAUHANAS: By the influence of the Jaina Acharya, the Chauhana rulers also patronized Jainism. Prithvirāja I is known to have been ruling in 1155 A.D.³ He had golden cupolas put on the Jaina temples at Ranthambhore.⁴ This besides proving his mastery of Ranthambhore testifies to his liberal views in matters of religion. His son and successor was Ajayarāja. Though he was a devotee of Śiva, he paid due respect also to the followers of Jaina sects. He permitted the Jains to build temples in the newly founded city of Ajmer, presented a golden Kalasa to the temple of Pūrvañātha⁵ and acted as a judge in the religious discussion between the Svetāmbara teacher Dharmaghoshasuri and his Digambara opponent Gunachandra. He was succeeded by his son Arjunarāja, also known as Annaladeva, before 1184 A.D. He was a contemporary of Jinadamasuri whom he held in great respect. He visited him at his seat and granted a suitable site to his followers for the construction of a big Jaina temple.⁶ Jinadamasuri died and was also cremated at Ajmer in 1184 A.D. After Dādā Jinadamasuri, the place came to be known as Dādābhāgi or the garden of Dādā.⁷ After that, in a number of towns in Rajasthan, the Jaina merchants remained their gardens as Dādābhāgis in respectful memory of the great saint.

After Arjunarāja, Visaladeva Vigraharāja ascended the throne in about 1182 A.D. In religious matters, he followed the foot-steps of his forefathers. For Jains, he built *chhatras*, participated in their religious ceremonies and on the representation of one of these religious teachers, Dharmaghoshasuri,

1. MUSE JINARAJAN: *Jaina-Jetha-saṅgraha* Pl. II, No. 12. 5. JIAS, 1886, p. 516.

2. *The History of India as told by its own people*, Vol. 1, p. 504.

3. ABENIA, yr. 1031, No. 4.

4. *Catalogue of the Manuscripts in the Patana Bhautāra*, p. 316.

5. *Janapana* yr. 1, No. 1, p. 4.

6. *Catalogue of Manuscripts in Patana Bhautāra*, p. 316.

7. *Kharahira-gachabhu-Bhūḍgīrīśūlī*, p. 16.

prohibited the slaughter of animals on the Ekādśī day.¹ After him, Prithvirāja II became the ruler. It is known from the Bijolia inscription of 1169 A.D. that Prithvirāja II endowed the temple of Pārśvanātha at Bijolia with a village called Mochuri to meet its recurring expenses. Prithvirāja II was succeeded by his uncle Somēśvara, son of Anandāja. He earned through his personal valour the *hōmā* of Pratāpalañchēvara and with a desire to gain heaven endowed Pārśvanātha on the bank of the Revē with a village named Revānī in absolute charity.² After Somēśvara, his son Prithvirāja III became the emperor who ruled from 1179 A.D. He liked religious discussions and therefore, in his royal court, a debate was held in 1182 A.D. between Jinapatisuri and Paṇḍita Padmaprabha, Chāyavyāsa to Upakōśagachchhā in which Jinapatisuri emerged victorious.³

A branch of Chauhānas ruled from Nāḍol in Marwar from 960 A.D. till 1212 A.D. Abasēja of this dynasty was a feudatory of the Solāṅki emperor Kumārāpala. He accepted Jainism and patronized it. He gave commands for the strict observance of *ahimsā* in his kingdom on certain days. He made over to his son Kapukarāja the village of Sevālī at Jāḍisa which was famous for the temple of Vīṇāśāha, the 24th Tīrthāṅkara. The inscription of Sevālī of 1110 A.D. of the time of Abasēja records a grant of barley equal to one *hāṛaka* from every one of the wells *vaḥaka* belonging to the villages of Padmāñḍa, Medanāḥa, Chūchhachāḍḍā and Meddāñ for the daily worship of Dharmamāthadeva in the temple of Samiprēṣi by the Mahāsāhanīya Uppalañḍa (the great master of articles). The second stone inscription of Sevālī of 1115 A.D. records that Kapukarāja made an annual grant of 4 *dharmas* to Thallaka, the son of Bālañḍa, on the Śivarātri day for the worship of Sāmīnātha in the *khātāḥa* (niche) of Yāśodeva, the grand-father of the donee.⁴

Mahārāja Rāyapāla also patronized Jainism. The Nāḍolī stone inscription of 1132 A.D. records a grant made by Rudrapāla and Amṛtapāla, sons of Mahārāja Rāyapāla along with their mother, Rāḍhī Māmaladevī. The gift consists of two *paḍāḥa* of oil out of the share due to the royal family from each oil mill. The recipients were the Jaina *preetis* in and outside of Nāḍolāḍḍaka.⁵ The Nāḍolī stone inscription of 1138 A.D. refers to the reign of

1. *Catalogue of the Manuscripts in the Pattana Bhagāwats*, p. 370.

2. E. I. Vol. XXIV, p. 84. 3. *Ibid.* 4. *Khamsatam gachchhaka-Prabandgarvāṇī*, pp. 25-32.

5. E. I. Vol. XI, pp. 30-32. 6. *Ibid.* pp. 34-35.

Mahārāja Rāyapāla over Nāguladīgika and then records the gift of one twentieth part of the income derived from the lands having or entailing Nāguladīgika by the Guhila Thākura Rājadeva for the worship of Neminātha.¹ The third Nāḍolī suna inscription of 1143 A.D. is of the reign of Mahārāja Rāyapāla when Rāula Rājadeva was the Thākura of Nāguladīgika. It records some benefaction of the temple of Mahāvīra.² The fourth inscription of 1143 A.D. of this place of the reign of Mahārāja Rāyapāla records that Rāula Rājadeva made a grant of one *Vāṇspaka* from the *Paḍas* (*grain*) according to him and two *paḍhāḍ* from the *bales* of oil due to him from every *ghaṇṭa* to this temple.³

Mahārāja Ālhanadeva, feudatory of Kumārapāla obtained Kōṭhā-lapa, Lāṭashada and Sivā in 1132 A.D. through the favour of his master. He also extended patronage to Jainism. He on the *Vaṇṭerī* day in 1132 A.D. thinking the granting of security to animals to be the highest gift issued injunctions for the increase of his spiritual merit and fame to the *mahājanas*, *śūdradhīśas* and other subjects, forbidding the slaughter of living beings on the 8th, 11th and 14th days of both the fortnights of every month in the three towns named above and threatening with capital punishment those who killed or caused others to kill living beings.⁴ The Brāhmanas, priests, ministers and others were also ordered to respect this edict of non-slaughter. And amongst these, he who commits the sin of taking life should be fined five *dramma*s, but if the sinner be one attached to the king, he should be fined one *ṣaṭman* only. We know from the Nāḍol grant that Ālhan and Kadhana were pleased to give to the Rāyapāla Kīmpāla 12 villages, appertaining to Nāḍolī. In 1160 A.D. after bathing at Nāḍolī and worshipping the sun and Mahāvīra, Kīmpāla granted a yearly sum of two *dramma*s from each of his twelve villages to Jina Mahāvīra at Nāḍolī.⁵ This he had done either voluntarily or on the request of the Jains. The Nāḍol grant of 1171 A.D. registers that Mahārāja Ālhanadeva of Nāḍol worshipping the sun and Jāṇas and making gifts to Brāhmanas and Guṇas, granted to the Jaina temple of Mahāvīra in the *Sanderaka* *Gachchha* at the holy place

1. E. I. XI, pp. 37-41. 2. Noticed by Kirttous, E. I. Vol. IX, p. 159.

3. Edited by Kirttous, E. I. Vol. IX, pp. 63-65. noticed Ben Kanis E. A. Vol. XI, p. 146. 4. E. I. Vol. XI, pp. 43-46.

5. Edited by Kirttous, E. I. Vol. IX, pp. 66-70.

(Mahāsthāna) of Nāgula a monthly sum of 4 *drāmas* to be paid from the custom house (*satthamānāpaka*) in the Nādīnārāpaka.¹

Kellanadeva, the son of Ālhanadeva, also contributed to the progress of Jainism. The Sanderiya stone inscription of 1162 A.D. in the reign of Kellanadeva records that Anubhaladevi, the queen mother, granted one plough of land to the Tirthaṅkara Mahāvīra, Mohanīyaka of the Sanderiya Gauchha.² The Lāṭī stone inscription of 1176 A.D. of the reign of Kellanadeva states that the Rājaputra Lākhanapāla and Abhayapāla, the owners of Siniṇṇapaka and sons of Kiriṇipāla, made a grant conjointly with the queen Mahābaladevi in the presence of the village *panchāyats* for celebrating the festival of the god Śāntinīlha. The grant consisted of barley weighing one *āṇaka* as used as the currency of Gujaraṭa from the well of the village Bhadrāyana.³ The second Lāṭī stone inscription of the same time speaks of the Rājaputra Lākhanapāla and Abhayapāla as the owners of Siniṇṇapaka. It then records that the cultivators Bhivajī, Āsadhara and others granted for their spiritual merit four seers of barley from the field called Khaḍḍhara to the Tirthaṅkara Śāntinīlha in connection with the festivals of the Gujaraṭ.⁴ The second Sanderiya stone inscription of 1179 A.D. of the reign of Kellanadeva of Nādula records the gift of a column and house to the Tirthaṅkara Pārśvanātha, worshipped at Sanderiya (Sanderiya) in the *bhukti* of the queen Jāhana by Rāḥa and Pāḥa. Those residing in the house must pay four *drāṇas* to the God.⁵

Kiriṇipāla removed the Chahaman capital from Nādol to Jalāḍipura. Jainism made much headway even under the reign of Chahamanas of Jalāḍipura. The Jalore stone inscription 1182 A.D. of the reign of Mahārāja Samantasiṃhadeva, son of Mahārāja Kiriṇipāladeva and grand-son of Mahārāja Ālhanadeva records that *manḍapa* was constructed by the Setha Yaśovīra of Śrīmala family who was joined in this work by his brother and all the members of the *Gauchha*.⁶ Yaśovīra became the minister of Udayasīṃha, the successor Samantasiṃha. Another inscription of Jalore records that the temple of Pārśvanātha built by Kumārapāla was rebuilt in 1185 A.D. by the Bhapālāri Yaśovīra in accordance with the orders of Mahārāja Samantasiṃhadeva of the

1. Edited by Kirtimukha, B. I. Vol. IX, pp. 63-66; re-edited by K. V. Kanva, I.A. Vol. XL, p. 140. 2. B. I. Vol. XI, pp. 46-47. 3. B. I. Vol. XI, pp. 49-50.

4. Ibid. pp. 50-51. 5. Ibid. pp. 51-52. 6. Ibid. pp. 52-54.

Chāhamāna family.¹ The inscription of 1241 A.D. referring itself to the reign of Chāhamāna King Chāchhadeva specified the contribution of 50 *devanams* to the *Shikharas* of Mahāvīra of the Chandanavāhira by a Teli Qasvāla called Nāsqani.² Another inscription of 1275 A.D. records the gift of one Narpati to the temple of Pārśvanātha in the reign of Sāmārasīdha.³

We thus see that under the liberal patronage of the Chāhamāna rulers, Jainism acquired a hold in the Marwar, Ajmer, Bijolia and Sambhar regions of Rajasthan. Both Jainism and Hinduism continued to flourish side by side. There was no spirit of rivalry or intolerance. The kings used to worship both Hindu gods and Jain Tirthankaras and at the same time, used to participate in the affairs and functions of both the religions.

JAINISM UNDER THE CHĀVAPAS AND SOLANKIS: Jainism enjoyed the patronage also of the Chāvas and the Solankis. They were no doubt Sava kings but honoured the Jain sages and scholars also. Some rulers supported the Jain faith with special regard. At about this time, Hemachandra's deep learning and pure life gave an impetus to Jainism in Rajasthan and Gujarat. He was a great leader and propagator of Jainism. For his depth of scholarship and purity of life, as also for his dynamic personality, he can be compared only with the great Sadhacharya. It was as a result of his noble efforts that Jainism prospered both in Rajasthan and Gujarat.

The Chāvada dynasty was established by Vamarāja, the founder of Anahilavāla. He invited Śālaguṇasami, a Jain saint, with great honour. The saint had foretold the career of the king from marking the marks on his body, while, as a baby, he was lying in his cradle in the forest. He placed his kingdom at the disposal of the Sari but the selfless saint would not care for it. On the suggestion of Sari, he constructed the temple of Panchānra in which he placed the image of Pārśvanātha.⁴ He also invited the Jain merchants from Srināli and other places of Maru-dharadeśa to settle in Pattan by affording to them many facilities.

Mularāja Sedakā acquired the kingdom of Anahilavāla from the last Chāvada descendant of Vamarāja in about 922 A.D. He was a very powerful ruler and ruled over a vast kingdom which consisted of Sārasvata

1. PSAS. WE., 1908-09, p. 55. 2. Ibid. 3. Ibid.

4. *Prabandhachintamṇa*, *Varadajit-pothanalla*, p. 15.

and Satyaparamahansa and parts of Cutch and Saurashtra. He was a patron of Jainism and seems to have constructed the temple named Malarāja-vasahikā.¹

Jainism prospered under Jayasinha and Kumārapāla who, with political motives, considered it necessary to enlist the support of Jains who were well-known for their wealth and statesmanship. Jayasinha was no doubt a devotee of Saivite faith, but he had his leanings even towards Jainism. It is for this reason that he held an assembly in which a debate took place between the Digambara monk Kumāracandra and the Svetāmbara monk Devasuri in 1125 A.D.² To witness it, the people actually assembled from the border lands. He was a patron of scholars, and Hemachandra adorned his court for some time.

The successor of Jayasinha was Kumārapāla who gradually came under the influence of Hemachandra and at last, embraced Jainism. He took various steps for the propagation of Jainism; and in certain respects, he made his state a model Jain state. He not only himself renounced the joys and pleasures prohibited by the Jain scriptures but also induced his subjects to follow his path also. He issued an ordinance for the protection of animal life; and it was applied most strictly throughout his empire. The *Devānīrma-kāya* says that in Paldeśa in Rajasthan the Brāhmanas were forced to use cow instead of flesh in sacrifice and the ascetics who used to wear antelope skin found it hard to procure it. Merutunga in the *Yuktīśāra-prabandha* also mentions that a simple minded merchant of Sapāḍatāksha was given the punishment of building the Yuktīśāra at the cost of the whole of his fortune for committing the offence of crushing a mouse.³ But it is evidently an exaggerated account amounting to ridicule.

Kumārapāla was also a great patron of learning and established twentyone Śāstradharmāras in the different parts of his empire.⁴ He was also a great builder. Merutunga speaks of 1440 temples built by him in

1. *Prabandhachintāmaṇi, Mālorāja-prabandha*, p. 22.

2. *Prabandhachintāmaṇi* pp. 171-182. *Prabandhachintāmaṇi* pp. 78-82.

3. *Prabandhachintāmaṇi*, p. 170.

4. *Prabandhachintāmaṇi (Hemachandra-prabandha)* p. 92.

various provinces.¹ It seems to be merely an exaggeration but the fact of his having built a large number of temples cannot be ignored. From the inscription of 1153 A.D., we know that he built the Jaina temple at Jalora.²

After the death of Kumārapāla, the Jain community faded into political obscurity but continued to be otherwise powerful and wealthy. Again under Vināla, Vastupāla and Tejapāla, it gained the political power. They were devout Jains and they had done their best to consolidate Jainism. Vināla was appointed as the governor by Chālukya King Bhīma I after ousting Dharmadhara who took refuge in Malwa. It seems that Vināla sent for Dharmāha and reconciled him to Bhīma. After that³ by the orders of Dharmāha, he constructed the temple of Ādinātha in 1032 A.D. at Alor which is among the architectural wonders of the world.

Vastupāla and Tejapāla were at first ministers of Bhīma and the latter at the request of Virādhanavala gave them to the Vāghela prince as a token of friendship. In the time of Somasiṃha, Tejapāla the younger brother of Vastupāla, built the temple of Neminātha, named Lapaṇasiddhi, in the memory of his son Lapaṇasīriṣa, in 1237 A.D. For the worship of that temple, Somasiṃha gave the village of Dahān in Sirolī state.⁴

JAINISM UNDER THE PARAMĀRAS: The Paramāra rulers also patronised Jainism like other Rājputa rulers. An inscription of 967 A.D. in the Jaina temple at a village named Divyā in Sirolī state records that during the reign of Kṛṣṇasūrya, the image of Viranātha was set up by Varāhamāha belonging to the Vishṇu family.⁵ This inscription is very important as it determines the date of Kṛṣṇasūrya also. He was the Paramāra ruler of Ābu, son of Ārāyavāra and grandson of Uppalāsūrya. This is the oldest inscription of the Paramāra rulers of Ābu.

There is an inscription in the temple of Mahāvīra at Bhājoli which records that the wife of Paramāra king Dharmavarāha named Śrīrāgandevī gave land to the temple in 1097 A.D.⁶ An inscription of 1243 A.D. records a grant to the temple of Pārsvanātha during the reign of Ādhvasiṃha, king of Chandīvari.⁷ In 1298 A.D., during the reign of Mahāsūrya Vīrahadeva, Sarāgandevī of Chandīvari, the Paramāra Thākura namely Śaī Preśāpa and

1. *Prabandhakāśīkāmāṇi*, p. 115.

2. *Rājaputānā lē Hāhāra*, p. 200.

3. *Ibid.* No. 311.

4. *PRAS.* WC; 1908-09; p. 55.

5. *APJIS*, No. 486.

6. *ARRMA*, 1909-10 No. 22.

Śrī Hanuadeva of the village Dargai gave two pieces of land to meet the expenses of the temple of Pārivaṇśīha.¹ Subhāśirīha, the son of Rāvala Mahipāladeva, gave 425 *dharmas* to this temple for performing some religious function. From the inscriptions of 1134 A.D. at Dīyānā, we know that the king Tejapāla and his minister Kuṣā constructed a cistern and gave it to the temple of Mahāvīra.²

Jainism spread under the Paramāras of Malwa. The ruler of this place named Naravarmān was himself a devotee of Śiva but he was tolerant of other religions especially Jainism. When Jinavallabhasuri was at Chittorg, two Paṇḍitas from the south came to his court with a problem. The scholars of his court tried to solve the problem but the southern scholars were not satisfied. But at last, the king forwarded the problem to Jinavallabhasuri who immediately solved it.³ From Chittore, he came to Dhār. The king invited him to his place where he listened to his religious discourses. So pleased was he with his extraordinary poetic talent that he offered him the choice of accepting either three villages or 30000 *paratha dharmas*. Jinavallabha accepted neither. He requested instead that Naravarmān should grant two *paratha dharmas* daily from the customs house of Chittore for the maintenance of his two Kharana temples. This brief notice is historically important as giving us some idea of the extent of the Paramāra kingdom and the political status of Mewar.

The Paramāras ruled over a considerable part of modern Rajasthan. Their rule extended to Mewar, Sirohi, Kota and Jhalwar states where Jainism was very popular in those days; and the noble Jaina monuments of that period are still standing side by side with the Hindu monuments.

JAINISM UNDER THE RATHORAS OF BHATHUNDI: Bhathundi is a place near Bījpur in Marwar. The Rathoras ruled here during the tenth century A.D. Generally, they were the followers of Jainism. Viḍaghlārāja, son of Hariharmān, at the preaching of Vāmadevācārya, built a temple of Rishabhadeva here and also made a gift of land to it. His son Manmāy made a grant for this temple. His son was Dhavala who also renovated the Jaina temple built by his grandfather and helped in every way to glorify Jainism. He in conjunction with his son made a gift of a well called *Pippala*.

1. APLS No. 55. 2. Ibid. No. 499. 3. *Khavaturegachchha Bīkhatpurānāḍ*, p. 13.

Dhavalā renounced the world in his old age after having placed his son Bahupatākā on the throne. The *gubhī* of Hastināpuri also renovated this temple. After its restoration, the installation ceremony of the image was performed by Śaundilyādī, the pupil of Vāsudevachārya, in 1033 A.D. and several Śrāvikas participated in it. These Kṣātrīyakūjas weighed themselves in gold and distributed it among the poor as charity.¹

JAINISM DURING SURASENAS: Surasenas ruled over the region now included in Bhatnagar state from the 6th century to the 12th century A.D. Jainism developed much here at this time. Some of the Surasena rulers accepted and patronised it. Several images are known to have been installed here. The Jaina Achāryas visited it and some of them had also their residence here.

As Jainism was prevalent in Mathura in early times, it may have been in existence here also. But old monuments were destroyed by the Muslims. The earliest trace of Jainism here is known from the tenth century A.D. Pradyumnasuri who was the contemporary of king Allaga of Mewar was honoured in the courts of Sapādalakāṣa and Tribhuvanagiri.² Ghansdevasuri was initiated to Jaina monkhood by Abhayadevasuri, pupil of Pradyumnasuri. Ghansdevasuri was famous as Kardamabhojapuri of Tribhuvanagiri. Whether Kardama was his name or title, it is not known. He founded Kājagachchla. He is said to be a contemporary of the king Mueja of Malwa who died in 997 A.D.³ This Kardamabhojapuri may be identified with the ruler Pyṭhvīpāladeva alias Bhāṣṛīpāṇa mentioned in the Thakardī (Daugarapuri) inscription of Anangapāladeva of 1135 A.D.⁴ This inscription mentions the four princes, namely, Pyṭhvīpāladeva alias Bhāṣṛīpāṇa, his son Tribhuvanpāladeva, his son Vijaypāla and his son Surapāladeva. The family to which they belonged is not mentioned but they seem to be the Surasena rulers. The inscription of 994 A.D. on the image of a Jina found at Bastiā says that it was caused to be made in accordance with the instructions of Sarasena of apparently the Vāgda Saṅgha by three brothers Śūdraka, Yacodā and Nandaka.⁵ The pedestal of a Jaina image with the inscrip-

1. S.J.L., Pt. I, No. 508.

2. PETERSON'S *Reports* 3, pp. 150—162.

3. *Jaina Śāhityaśaṅkṣa* (Tilhāsa), pp. 107—108.

4. A.R.M.A., gr. 1215—16, p. 3.

5. PRAS. *We.*, 1909—10, p. 52.

mons of 994 A.D. and one Digambara Jain image of Mahāvīra with head missing bearing an inscription of 1004 A.D. have been discovered at Katarī.¹

Durgadeva, the Digambara Jain poet, finished the *Kaṭasamudhaya* at Kumbhanagara ruled over by Lakshminivāsa in the first temple of Śāminātha in 1032 A.D.² Kumbhanagara may be identified with Kāmā near Bharatpur. As regards the king named Lakshminivāsa, he may be identified with Lakshmanarāja, the son of Chitrakēśha, mentioned in the Bayānī inscription of A.D. 1012.³ The Bayānī stone inscription of 1043 A.D. contains the names of Vichitran and Mahāvīrasuri, the Jain teachers of the Kānyakagachchha of the Śvetāmbaras, and records the death of Mahāvīrasuri during the reign of prince Vijayapāla.⁴ Vijayapāla is said to have rebuilt and added to the fort and to have named it after himself as Vijayamaandiragachha. The Kānyakagachchha originated from Kāmā in Bharatpur state and remained confined only to this area. The mention of the city of Śrīpātha in the inscription clearly points out that the ancient Sanskrit name of Bayānī was Śrīpātha. Jain images with the inscription of 1136 A.D. have been discovered at Naroli in Bayānī Taluk.⁵ These images prove that they were consecrated at the same time.

The last Surasena ruler of Bayānī was Kumārpāla who came to the throne in about 1132 A.D. He was preached by the Jain monk Jinadattasuri. The ceremony of placing the golden *kalas* and flag on the temple of Śāminātha was performed here by Jinadattasuri with great rejoicings.⁶ The two disciples of Jinadattasuri, namely, Jinapāl-gani and Dharmatīl-gani, used to study with Yasobhadracharya of this place. After getting information from Jinadattasuri, they went on pilgrimage along with the Saṅgha of Tribhuvanagiri and met their teacher along with the other Saṅgha in 1168 A.D.⁷ Vālidevasuri who lived in the latter half of the 12th century defeated some learned scholar in the fort of Tribhuvanagiri.⁸ An old temple of Upadhyagachchha was also there.⁹ All these facts indicate that Jainism was flourishing under the Surasenas in this area at this time.

1. ARMA, 1900-19, No. 1 & 2.

3. E. I. Vol. 22, p. 120.

5. PRAS. WC., 1920-21, p. 116.

7. Ibid. 34.

9. Ibid.

2. Sūgīt Jain Series, Vol. 21 (Introduction).

4. I. A. Vol. 21, p. 67.

6. *Kaṭasamudhaya* Bāhādurgamitā, p. 19.

8. *Bhāratiya Vidyā*, Vol. 2, part 1, p. 62.

JAINISM IN THE DIFFERENT STATES OF RAJASTHAN

Jainism was in existence in the different parts of Rajasthan in early times. Even after the formation of the states, it continued to flourish under the patronage of their rulers. Temples were constructed and images were placed in them with great ceremony. The Jain monks enjoyed the greatest respect and regard of both the kings and the masses of these states. Such was the dominance of Jainism that some rulers and most of the people began to observe the doctrine of *ahimsa*.

JAINISM UNDER MEWAR RULERS: Jainism enjoyed the patronage of several Mewar rulers. Such was the powerful hold of Jainism that some of the rulers, though not Jains, constructed Jain temples and installed images in them. They gave them charities of different kinds. They invited the Āchāryas and offered them royal reception. Influenced by their discourses they issued an ordinance for the observance of the doctrine of *ahimsa*. The Jain ministers also constructed several beautiful Jain temples.

Rājā Bhūmapāla was ruling in 943 A.D.¹ He founded the town of Bhūmapura after his name. He built the Guhādevihāra and placed the image of Ādinātha in it through Budhagani of Chaitanyasiya Gachchha.² The minister of his son king Allāsa constructed a Jain temple at Āghāta in which the image of Pārśvanātha was installed by Yashodevasuri of the Samferuka Gachchha in the 10th century. Jinasrabhadhasuri was a contemporary of Mahārājvala Kshetrasinha of Chittore.³ When Jinasrabhadha came to Chittore, Brāhmanas, ascetics, the chief among the Rājaputras, Kshetrasinha and Karpurāja all combined to receive the Āchārya there in about 1277 A.D.⁴

Samarasinha, the ruler of Mewar and his mother, Jayantidevi were greatly influenced by the discourses of Devendrasuri and became his devotees. Probably, it was due to his advice that Jayantidevi, queen of lord Tejasingha of Medapāta and Chitrakuta constructed the temple of Pārśvanātha as we know from the Chitrakuta inscription of 1278 A.D.⁵ It also states that Mahārājvala Samarasinha Deva, the adornment of Guhāputra family,

1. ARJMA, yr. 1914, No. 1.

2. *Jaina Darśan Pratikāśa*, yr. 7, *Dīpnamālā*, pp. 146-147.

3. *Jaina-Sūtrīyana Samkshipta Hīndāna*, p. 103.

4. *Khamtaranāthachha Brāhmadēvāvali*, p. 56.

5. ARJMA, yr. 1922-23, No. 6.

granted land to the west of the temple for a monastery to Pradyumnasuri with some endowments. Another inscription of the time of the Gadhla king Samarasinha records the grant of land to a Jaina temple belonging to the Bhadrinapurīya Gachchha for the spiritual welfare of his mother, Jayadēhīdevī, who received religious instructions from Śādhvī Sumatī.¹ Besides, being encouraged and advised by Śūrī, Samarasinha had also issued an ordinance prohibiting the slaughter of animals in his kingdom. This ordinance also refers to the fact that the people would abstain from taking wine and would strictly follow the rules of justice and religion. Tejāra, son of Rānī, accompanied by his wife, Rāmādevī and his son, Vijayāsinha set up a Jaina image for the welfare of Jayadēhīdevī as we know from the inscription of 1306 A.D. on the image in the temple of Prātāpagarh.²

Gunarāja, the cashier of King Maukaiya, built the temple of Mahāvīra by his master's orders in 1428 A.D.³ At Nāgādī, there is a temple of Pārśvanātha which was constructed by a certain trader of the Berozila caste in 1429 A.D. according to the inscription.⁴

After Rānī Maukaiya, his son Kumbhakarana became the ruler who was a great supporter of Jainism. Not only many images and temples were built and installed in his reign but he himself also built the most remarkable Jaina temple at Śāladī.⁵ The Jaina Kirtustambha at Chitorgarh was built by Purnāsinha, the son of Jijā of the Baghetavāla caste, at the persuasion of his daughter in the 15th century.⁶ That Mahādīnā Kumbha permitted the construction of a Jaina Kirtustambha inside the fort is a concrete and unmistakable evidence of his respectful attitude towards Jainism. The famous *Chamunda* temples of Ranapura and Kamalagadhā were constructed in his reign. The inscription of 1444 A.D. engraved on a loose stone lying in a Jaina monastery at Delavādī in the Udaipur State records that during his victorious reign, 14 *tanakās* were allotted for the worship of Dharmachakra-maṇi temple.⁷ In Adichudaji temple at Nāgādī, a colossal image of Śāmonātha was set up in 1437 A.D. by a merchant named Sānubha in his reign.⁸

1. AIRMA, yr. 1921-2, No. 9.

2. AIRMA yr. 1921-22, No. 3.

3. *History of Indian Architecture*, p. 240.

4. *Anekānta* yr. 8, No. 3, p. 139.

5. *Madhyagadha, Madhyagadha wani Kāyapāthas ka Prāśāna Jaina Samāra*, p. 137.

6. PRAS. WC., 1904-05, p. 62.

7. AIRMA, 1923-24, No. 7.

8. PRAS. WC., 1905, p. 61.

The inscription of 1448 A.D. on a pillar in the Jaina temple now known as Singleschauri at Chitnore records the erection of a temple of Jaina Tīrthaṅkara Samantārtha by Bhagadīś Vellāha, son of Sīha Kallā, the treasury officer of Rājā Kumbhakarana.¹ An inscription engraved on the image lying in the Jaina temple at Vasuntagadhī states that the image was set up in the Vasuntagars Chaitya by Bhāṭṭa, son of Dhānśī, and was consecrated by Muni Śaṅkaranan in 1453 A.D.² An inscription of 1461 A.D. engraved on the pedestal of a big brass image of Ādinātha at Achalagadh on Mt. Abu records that while Mahārājādhirāja Kumbhakarana was ruling at Kumbhāśā-mera, the image was made at Durgarapur during the reign of Rāvāla Somadāsa and brought to Abu by the Saṅgha of Tapāgachchha.³

Jainism continued to flourish in the reign of Rājā Rāyamala who was the son of Rājā Kumbha. An inscription from Udaipur of 1499 A.D. speaks of the erection of temples dedicated to Mahāvīra, Ambikā and so forth in the victorious reign of Rājā Rāyamala.⁴ From the image inscription of Ādinātha at Nādīā, it is known that the ceremony of the installation of the image was caused to be made by Sīhā and Samadī whose grand-father Sagar had previously rebuilt the subsidiary cells through the orders of Prithvīrāja, the eldest son of Rāyamala, the ruler of Alwar.⁵

Mahārājā Pratāpa, the greatest hero among the Rajputs, wrote a letter to Bhuvijaya requesting him to visit Meccā for propounding the Dharma. This letter written in the old Meyūṭī in 1578 A.D. is a very important document in the history of Jaina religion.⁶ This shows that though incessantly engaged in warfare for the defence of his homeland against the imperial aggressions of Akbar, Pratāpa, the indomitable hero, did not ignore the nourishment of his own soul, as also of those of his people. The fact that the invitation was extended to the greatest Jaina saint of the period indicates the catholicity of his views and his love of Jainism. A long inscription, in Mīrawāṭī language, of 1602 A.D. records a grant made apparently by Amarsinhā who was the son of Mahārājā Pratāpa.⁷

1. ARBMA., yr. 1920-21, No. 10.

2. Ibid., yr. 1925-26, No. 8.

3. PRAS. Wc., 2008-09, p. 43.

4. PRAS. Wc., 1907-08, p. 48-49.

5. Ibid., yr. 1923-24, No. 2.

6. PRAS. Wc., 1905-06, p. 60.

7. *Rajapattāṅk ko Jaina Vira*, pp. 301-32.

Jainism enjoyed special royal patronage in the reign of Mahārāja Jayasimha. The image at Nāthol and Nāthur have been installed by Jayasimha and the whole Saṅgha respectively in 1675 A.D. Hearing the virtues of Āchārya Mahārāja Devrasa, Mahārāja Jayasimha intended him to spend his *chaturmāsā* (four months of rainy season) at Udaipur through his Prime Minister, Jhālā Kalpāsimha. Devrasa acceded to the request and came to Udaipur where he was welcomed with military honours as known to us from the *Dharmamahātmya*.¹ Impressed by his preaching, the king became his firm devotee. He had prohibited the collection of customs revenue from the large congregation of the people held every year at Varāhañ. He also issued an ordinance for the stoppage of the catching of fish or any other living creature from the Picholi and Udayakara lakes of Udaipur, destruction of animals during the month of birth of Mahārāja and during the Bhādrapada month every year and destruction of animal life on the coronation day of the Mahārāja. He also ordered the repair of Jain temples built by Kumārā Rānā on Machinda-shrugs. Besides this, he worshipped the image of Rishabhdeva in the temple of Velapur.²

The Jain religion continued to enjoy the royal support even afterwards. The Chief Minister Dayāśāha of Mahārāja Rājāsīha built the beautiful Jain temple at Rājanagera and performed the consecration ceremony in 1675 A.D. through Vijayakṛpā during his visitation trip.³

JAINISM IN THE STATES OF DUNGARAPUR, BANSWARA AND PRATAPGARH: These three states comprised the Vāgḍi region. Jainism enjoyed patronage and prospered under the rulers of these states. In their service, there were several Jain ministers. They constructed a number of temples and celebrated the consecration ceremony of the images with pomp and show which attracted large crowds. Some manuscripts were also prepared under their patronage. So popular was Jainism for some time then, that even soldiers and people of similar castes observed the doctrine of *ahiṃsā* out of respect for the Jain population.

The existence of Jainism in this region as early as the 16th century is known to us from an inscription of 994 A.D. engraved on the Jain image

1. PRAS, Vol., 1908-09, p. 40.

2. Ibid., p. 43.

3. Saṅgha Jaina Series, Vol. 14 (Introduction).

4. *Rajaputana in Jaina Era*, p. 344.

5. *Keshariyaṅgi Tirtha ki Titikā*, p. 27.

'Jayati Śrī Vīra Saṅgha'. The capital at that time was Vajrapāda known at present as Barada. The faith continued to thrive in this region which is indicated by the various evidences discovered there. On the rock of an ancient temple of Pārśvanātha at this place, there are engraved figures of twenty-four Tīrthaṅkaras. The inscription of 1327 A.D. on it tells us that it was installed by Jinachandrasuri of the Kharatara Gachchha.¹ The image of Keśaviyāpī at Dhuleva in Mewar was carried from this place.²

The ancient name of Durgapur was Girivara. It was founded in about 1338 A.D. We know from the *Prasastiśilātras* of Jayānanda written in 1377 A.D. that in his days, there were five Jaina temples and about nine hundred Jaina families living there.³ In 1404 A.D. Prabalāda, the minister of Rāvala Pradīpasinha, constructed a Jaina temple.⁴ After that, Jainism continued to prosper during the reign of Gajapāla. We have copies of the four manuscripts written in his reign, namely, the *Pāṇḍyaśrādhātmaśilātrasaṅgraha* 1443 A.D., *Durgapuraprabhākaras Śaśīka* 1428 A.D., *Devīpāṇḍyaśrādhātmaśilātrasaṅgrahaśilātrasaṅgraha* 1429 A.D. and *Kaśīkūṭa* of 1430 A.D.⁵ From the inscription of 1469 A.D. on the wall of the Jaina temple of Ānṛī, it is clear that his chief minister Śīlāhā built the temple of Sāminātha and established an ashra-house at Ānṛī in 1448 A.D. In that temple, he set up brass images of Sāminātha.⁶ After Gajapāla, his son Somadāsa became the ruler. An inscription of 1461 A.D. engraved on the pedestal of big brass image of Śāminātha at Achalapāth on Mt. Abu records that it was made at Durgapur during the reign of Rāvala Somadāsa and brought to Abu by the Saṅgha of Tapā Gachchha; and Śīlāhā with wife Karanāṭhā and their sons, Śāllā and Māllā set up the image. The consecration ceremony was performed by Lakṣmīnāgarasuri of Tapāgachchha.⁷

After Śāllā, his son Śīllā became the chief minister of king Somadāsa. He gave liberal charities and in 1464 A.D. fed two thousand people everyday evidently at the time of famine.⁸ He repaired the temple of

1. *Durgapur Rājya kī Pīṭhān*, p. 1.

2. *Durgapur Rājya kī Pīṭhān*, p. 15.

3. *Mewār Rājya kī Pīṭhān*, p. 42.

4. *Śrī Mahārāṣṭra-rājya Jayanti Abhinandanagrantha*, p. 337.

5. ARRA, yr. 1015—16.

6. *Śrī Mahārāṣṭra-rājya Jayanti Abhinandanagrantha*, p. 338.

7. ARMA, yr. 1929—30, No. 3.

8. ARMA, yr. 1925—26, No. 8.

9. ARMA, yr. 1929—30, No. 3.

Prāśvanātha at Giripura. He erected a *mandapa* and *Dendakulāś* in the temple built by Sūbhā at Āntri. He also set up there an image of Marudeśī seated on an elephant. The consecration ceremony of this newly built puriton was performed by Somavijayasuri in 1468 A.D. He started to construct a big Jaina temple at his native place Tichā at a distance of five miles from Dungarpur but it was not completed.¹ From the Prakasa of manuscripts, it is known that *Sattho-I-hamodhacharjani* b-III, *Śrī Sakuntla-sūtra-shaṅkha* and *Rāyachulpalast-vilāshāvalī* were written during the reign of Rāvaḥa Somadāsa.² There is also the monument of the Jaina saint of his time.³ The consecration ceremony of the Jaina images was performed in 1462 A.D., and 1473 A.D. during his reign.⁴

The son of Rāvaḥa Somadāsa was Gangadāsa who was succeeded by Udayasinha. There is an inscription of 1514 A.D. engraved on the wall of Jaina temple of Śāminātha at Naugānā (Banswara state) which states that it was built by the sons and grandsons of Dosi Champā of the Humbada caste during the reign of king Udayasinha.⁵ That Jainism continued to thrive even in later times in the Dungarpur and Banswara states is evidenced by the images of the later period discovered here.⁶

Even in the Pratāpagarh State, the Jaina religion was in a flourishing condition. There are several inscriptions of the 14th or 15th century found on the images in the Jaina temples of Deoli, Jhānsadi and Pratāpagarh.⁷ The inscription on the back of a brass image in the Jaina temple at Deoli of 1416 A.D. records Thākura Khetūka, resident of the town Dhandhalebhavā-vāḥana and of Śmāla caste had the image of Pārśvanātha set up for the spiritual welfare of his father Thākura Phāmplā and mother Hānsaladevī.⁸ Even afterwards, Jainism continued to make phenomenal progress. An inscription, engraved on a slab built in the wall of a Jaina temple at Deoli, of 1714 A.D. records that the oilmen of the town agreed to stop working their mills for 44 days in a year at the request of Śāraṅg and Jivrajā of the Mahājana community in the reign of Mahārājva Prabhavishṇu.⁹ Another

1. *Dungarpur Rājya kī Itihāsa*, p. 38.

2. ARMA., yr. 1016—17.

3. *Dungarpur Rājya kī Itihāsa*, pp. 70—71.

4. *Ibid.* 1914—15.

5. *Ibid.* 1921—22 No. 6.

6. *Śrī Mahārājabarajata Jayanti Abhinandanana Grantha*, p. 369.

7. ARMA., yr. 1916—17, No. 5.

8. ARMAV., yr. 1921—22.

9. *Ibid.* 1934—35 No. 17.

inscription in the temple of Mallinātha at Deol of 1717 A.D. records that when Mahārājādhoṛja Mahārāva Pichāsīha was ruling at Devagadh and Pahlāsaṁha was his heir-apparent, the temple of Mallinātha was built by Singhar Vardhamāna, son of Singhar Śrivarsha and his wife Rukmi.¹ In the reign of Mahārāja Sāmārasīha, the temple of Ydinātha was built by Dhamrupa, Mananra and Abhayaachandra in 1781 A.D.² A grand ceremony of the consecration of the images was also performed at Pratiṣṭhagadh in 1867 A.D.³

JAINISM IN THE KOTAH STATE: Jainism was prevalent in very early times in the region now included in the Kotah State. Padmanandi composed the *Jambhadrāpamatti* at Bāṛā. From this work, we know that Bāṛā was full of the Śaivakas and Jain temples. This city was in Panyātra governed by a king named Śakti or Śānti who possessed noble character and true knowledge.⁴ This Bāṛā may be identified with Bārān in Kotah state. It was a centre of Jainism in the past as some old Jain temples are still found here. It also remained the seat of the Bhupāndakas of the Mulasaṁgha at this time.⁵ This ruler may be identified with Sakāhema of Mewar who ruled in 977 A.D. at Aghā.⁶ The kingdom of his grandfather Bhupāpā II seems to have extended on the south-east up the border of Pratiṣṭhagadh.⁷ His son and successor Allaga was also a powerful ruler. Afterwards, Sakāhema obtained the glory and consolidated his kingdom.⁸ His kingdom might have included some portion of Kotah state.

At Sheragadh, three colossal Jain images were set up by a Rajput Saradha in the eleventh century A.D. At present, these images are housed in a dilapidated building. From the inscription on the images, it is known that the city at that time was known as Koshayardhana.⁹

There are the Jain caves of the 8th or 9th century A.D. situated at a distance of three miles from Ramagadh. This place is fifty three miles north-east of Kotah. In early times, it was known as Śrinagara. The hill is covered with a thick forest infested by tigers and lions and other wild life.

1. ARMA, yr. 1934-35, No. 18.

2. Ibid. No. 20.

3. संवत् १८१४ सालसुद्धा ९ श्री रामराज तस्ये श्री कृष्णराजि प्रम विमल प्रदेवान् प्रतिष्ठां कृत विवर्धनः ।

4. Jugal Kishore Murtari fixes the time of this work to be the eighth century A.D. See *Purāṇa Jainaśāstranūchi*, p. 97.

5. I. A., Vol. 31, p. 97.

6. Ibid. 30, p. 180.

7. ARMA., 1910, p. 2.

8. I. A., Vol. 32, 189.

9. *Kotah Rājya kā Nihāsa*, p. 28.

Several Jaina monks like the Jaina monks of Ellorā passed their time in isolation from busy towns and were devoted to a life of meditation and contemplation. Near the caves, there are several statues of Jaina Tirthankaras.

At Atru, a railway station on the Koth-Bina railway and situated now in Koth district, there are the ruins of several beautiful Hindu temples and also those of two exquisite Jaina temples. The inscriptions discovered in the Hindu temples show that they were constructed in the 12th and 13th centuries of the Christian era when the Paramāras of Dhārā were ruling over this area. It will not be unsafe to conclude that the Jaina temples are contemporary of the Hindu edifices; and under the liberal policy of the Paramāras of Dhārā, they existed side by side with the Hindu temples for the worship of Jaina community which was quite large at Atru at this time.

Twelve miles from Atru to the east is situated the ruined town of Keishnavilāsa popularly known as Vilāsa on the bank of a small river known as Pāvati. There are found a number of dilapidated Jaina and Hindu temples which seem to have been of the 8th to the 11th century A.D.

About 25 miles farther east from Vilāsa, there is an old town of Śahābāda. Five miles from this town is a mound near the tank. At both these places, there are the ruins of both Jaina and Hindu temples which indicate that the followers of Brahmanical religion and Jainism lived in peace and amity in this region.

In 1689 A.D. at Chāndakherī, near Kabānapura, during the reign of Aurangzeb when his Sāmanta Kishorasinhha Chauhāna was ruling at Koth, Krishnadāsa, a very rich merchant of the Bagheravāla caste, constructed a Jaina temple of Mahāvira and celebrated the installation ceremony of the temple as well as images with his wives and sons.¹ At this time, Aurangzeb was in the south where Kishorasinhha was serving him faithfully. Even then repeated explanations were demanded as to why the temple was being built against the express imperial policy. But the local authorities continued to send evasive replies because they knew that the emperor's end was nigh.

JAINISM IN SIKHI STATE: In Sikhi State too, Jainism made marked progress. Its rulers patronized it beyond any shadow of a doubt. Temples were built and images were placed in them. Some of the rulers

1. Inscription on Yatra in the Jaina temple at Jaipur.

invited the religious Achāryas and followed their instructions both in letter and spirit.

This area was a centre of the Jain religion. The Kālandari inscription of 1332 A.D. records a fast unto death by the members of a whole Saṅgha.¹ They all gave up their worldly existence by abstaining from food. The names of those who thus immortalised themselves are given. This record bears an eloquent testimony to the deep and passionate faith of the people in the doctrines of Jainism in the 14th century A.D.

Jainism continued to grow and expand under the rulers of Sirohi. The inscription of 1428 A.D. in the temple of Mahāvīra at Pindwādī records the installation of Vardhamāna during the reign of prince Sehaṇ.² The fact that Rāyamalla constructed the monastery of Kṛṣṇabha in the reign of Rājanātha in 1542 A.D. is known to us from the inscription engraved on a slab in the temple of Kṛṣṇabha about three miles from Abu Road station.³ In 1546 A.D. during the reign of Durjanasala, two shrines for the merit of Lachhalade⁴ and Tejapāl⁵ respectively and in 1563 A.D. in the reign of Udayasinha, two shrines for the merit of Bū Goraṅgade⁶ and Lakshana⁷ were constructed in the temple of Mahāvīra at Pindwādī.

While going to Vatechapur Sikri on the invitation of Akbar, Hira-vijayant stayed at Sirohi where he was welcomed by king Suratānasinha. The king took a vow to refrain from drinking, hunting, flesh-eating and irregular sexual life. He also abolished some taxes on the advice of the Sri.⁸ An inscription on the temple of Sirohi tells us that the temple of Chaturmukha was built in the city of Sirohi during the reign of Mahārāja Rājasinha, son of Suratānasinha in 1577 A.D.⁹

In the reign of Akharāja, Dharmadāsa erected the *prabhā* of Sindhavijaya with the *chaturmukha* Saṅgha in 1662 A.D. at Vitarvāḍ.¹⁰ It is the ancient name of Bīrābhavastālā. In 1664 A.D., Udayabhāna¹¹ and Jagannāth¹² celebrated the consecration ceremony of the images Ādinātha and Sīdhanātha

1. PHAS. WC., 1910—17, p. 67.

3. Ibid., 1924—25, No. 19.

5. Ibid., No. 380.

7. Ibid., No. 384.

9. APJLS. No. 250.

11. Ibid., No. 243.

2. ARIMA., 1909—10, No. 3.

4. APJLS., No. 379.

6. Ibid., No. 383.

8. *Sūrībhūra unca Samrat Akbar*, p. 188.

10. Ibid., No. 298.

12. Ibid., No. 257.

respectively in his reign. At the same time, the whole Saṅgha performed the installation ceremony of the image of the Kumbhastha at the place, Pehuvā.¹

In the year 1714 A.D., Pitha established the *Paṭaka* of the Śūnī in the reign of Mānasihha.² During the same reign in 1730 A.D., Bhayāraka Chakravarasuri with other saints celebrated the installation ceremony for the good of others at Maṭiā.³ In 1819 A.D., king Śivashila gave the amount of taxes imposed on animals and land in the village Bāmanavāḍa as *Jāgira* to the Jaina temple.⁴

JAINISM UNDER THE RULERS OF JAISALMER: Jainism flourished very well under the Bhāṇi Rājaputs in the medieval period in Jaisalmer. Owing to its location in the heart of the desert, this place remained safe and secure from the Muslim invasions. Several beautiful temples were built and numerous images were placed in them with great celebration. Even the kings also took much interest in the religious affairs by participating in various ceremonies. The *paṭakās* of several Jain Aśvāryas were installed. The *śrīmuktas* led the Saṅghas to the places of pilgrimage. The *Sāgara-bhaṇḍārās* were founded for the preservation of the manuscripts here.

The former capital of Jaisalmer was Lohava. In about 994 A.D., there was a king named Sāgara in whose time Jinēśvarasuri, pupil of Vardhamānasuri of Kharana Gachchha, came to this place. By his good wishes, two sons namely Śrīdhara and Rājadhara were born, who constructed the temple of Pitrīvanātha here.⁵ This temple was renovated in 1618 A.D. by Sepha Thāharūsāha.⁶

Jainism had a stronghold at Vikramapura (now called Bikanapura) in Jaisalmer since from the early times. Specially, Karatagachchha remained dominant here. Aśvāryas of this Gachchha visited this place from time to time and performed various religious functions. In about 1111 A.D., Jinavallabhasuri visited Vikramapura.⁷ Jinapadesuri was born in 1133 A.D. at this place. He was initiated to monkhood in 1160 A.D. and was placed on *parya* in 1166 A.D. here. He initiated several persons to monkhood here from time to time. In 1173 A.D., he performed the installation ceremony of the *stūpa*

1. APILS., No. 504.

2. Ibid., No. 101.

3. Ibid., No. 103.

4. Ibid., No. 304.

5. N.J.L., pt. III, No. 2543.

6. Ibid., No. 2544.

7. *Kharataragachchha Brīhadpurāṇāṭī*, p. 13.

of *Abhaya-vijaya* Guṇachandra-gaṇi.¹ The Śrīṅṅas of this place participated in the Saṅgha led by Abhayakumāra to the holy places with Jinapatisarī from Anāhilapaṭṭaṇa in about 1185 A.D.²

Jaisalmer was made the capital after the destruction of Lodovra. In 1283 A.D., Jinapradhūdhāsana visited Jaisalmer. He was warmly received by Mahārāja Karni with his army. At his request, Śūrjī spent his rainy season.³ Here also, during the reign of King Lakṣmānāsiddha, the temple of Chintāmani Pārśvanātha was constructed on the preaching of the Āchārya Jinādāsana in 1416 A.D.⁴ The image of Pārśvanātha brought from Lodovra was placed in this temple. After the construction, the building was named Lakṣmānapavīṭha. It indicates the love of the subjects towards the king under whom their religion must have flourished.

The successor of Lakṣmāna was Vayarasiddha. In 1436 A.D., Pāsoṭa with the members of his family set up an idol of Supārśvanātha in the temple of Chintānāṭhī during his reign.⁵ Sāha Hemarāja and Pooṭ constructed the temple of Sambhavanātha in 1437 A.D. during his reign.⁶ The festivities in connection with the consecration ceremony took place in 1440 A.D. when Jinabhadra put three hundred idols of Sambhavanātha and of others. Even King Vayarasiddha took part in the festivities. In his reign, Sāha Lohī with the members of the family set up the image of Pārśvanātha in the standing pose in 1440 A.D.⁷

Chāchigadeva was the son of Vayarasiddha. He became the king in about 1448 A.D. In his reign, Sājka,⁸ Sachoharāja⁹ and Sājā¹⁰ celebrated the consecration ceremony of *Nandharapattikā*, *Satnigeya Gīrmanarotīra Pattikā* and *Nandīharapattikā* respectively through Jinachāndrasūri in 1461 A.D.

Jainism made striking progress also during the the reign of Devabhatṭa. Kheṛā of Sūndharvālechā grāma and Paṭelā of Chupadī grāma constructed the two temples namely of Śāntinātha and Aśvāpada respectively in 1479 A.D. during his reign.¹¹ There was some sort of matrimonial alliance between these two rich persons. Sanghavi Kheṛā with his family made

1. *Kāraṇatraguṇelchha-Brīhaḍguriatvāli*, p. 23.

2. *Ibid.*, p. 59.

3. *Ibid.*, No. 2114.

4. *Ibid.*, No. 2145.

5. *Ibid.*, No. 2117.

6. *Ibid.*, p. 34.

7. *NJI*, pt. III, No. 2112.

8. *Ibid.*, No. 2139.

9. *Ibid.*, No. 2116.

10. *NJI*, pt. III, No. 2154.

11. *Ibid.*, No. 2119.

pilgrimage to Samudhaya, Girardin and other Tirthas many times. He also performed the consecration ceremony of the famous *Tapa-pattika* of the temple of Samdhavanārtha. Even in 1479 A.D., Dharmapati of Pāṇā celebrated the *pratikṣā* of *Śāntinātha pīth* during his reign and established it in the Pārivanārtha temple.¹ In the same temple, in 1479 A.D., Hemā² and Bhimsen³ made *Jinamandira Pattika* in his time. The image of Maradevi was also erected at this time in the temple of Rishabhā.⁴

The Jain religion continued to progress in the time of the later rulers of Jaisalmer. During the reign of Bhīmesena in 1593 A.D., the *Pīthaka* of Jinakālasuri was erected by Samghavi Pīṇalatta.⁵ The consecration ceremony of the pillar of Pārivanārtha temple was also performed in 1606 A.D.⁶ In 1615 A.D. during the victorious reign of Kalyāṇadēva, Jinasinhāsuri built the *pīthaka* of Jinachandrasuri.⁷ Even in 1616 A.D., Muntri Tejaramala constructed the door of *Upāsana*.⁸ In 1621 A.D., Jinasinhāsuri came to Jaisalmer and celebrated the consecration ceremony of the image of Chintāmaṇi Pārivanārtha brought from Lohava and placed it in the temple named Lakṣmanavahāra.⁹ In the reign of Buddhasinha, Gangāraṇa with his family installed the images at the preaching of Varvasundara-gaṇi in 1712 A.D.¹⁰ In the reign of Alhaisinhā in 1749 A.D. and in 1755 A.D., the *Paryopādhyakṣ* of Jinandasuri was erected by his disciples.¹¹

Mulachā also patronized Jainism. In 1763 A.D., the *stupa* of Jinayaktasuri was constructed.¹² The Saṅgha established the *stupa* of Jinakālasuri in 1783 A.D. through the discourses of Jinachandrasuri.¹³ In 1786 A.D., the *thamha pīthaka* was erected and its consecration ceremony was celebrated by Pt. Rupachandm.¹⁴ The pillar was erected over the remains of Parsva Śri Vardhamāna in 1784 A.D.¹⁵ The whole *Saṅgha* constructed the temple of Rishabhadeva and its installation ceremony was celebrated by Pt. Rupachanda in 1824 A.D.¹⁶ In 1818 A.D., the pillar was raised on the remains of Jinachandrasuri.¹⁷

1. NJI, pt. III, No. 2120.

4. Ibid., No. 2400.

7. Ibid., No. 2407.

10. NJI, pt. III, No. 2501.

13. Ibid., No. 2502.

16. Ibid., No. 2576.

2. Ibid., No. 2404.

5. Ibid., No. 2404.

8. Ibid., No. 2407.

11. Ibid., No. 2508 & 2509.

14. Ibid., No. 2510.

17. Ibid., No. 2604.

3. Ibid., No. 2400.

6. Ibid., No. 2505.

9. Ibid., No. 2499.

12. Ibid., No. 2503.

15. Ibid., No. 2511.

Mularāja was succeeded by Gajashihha. During this reign, the initiation ceremony of Jinachandrasuri Āchārya was performed by *saṅgha* in 1819 A.D.¹ Inspired by the discourses of Jinamahendrasuri, Gunānāchanda, Saṁdūṭha and Vaggnirīṭha with their wives, sons and daughters went out on pilgrimage to Aho, Sikkharpi etc. in 1834 A.D.; and there they organized fairs, worship, charity and *cathartical* functions.² Encouraged by Jagavīśala Muni, the desolated *paṭak* of Jinamahendrasuri was repaired by the Devalas who consecrated it through Mahāvīrya Gajashihha.³ In 1836 A.D., Saṅghavi Gunānamala with the members of the family, for personal merit, repaired the old Jain temple near Anarasāgara and installed in it the image of Ādinātha.⁴ The *paṭak* of Jinachandrasuri, pupil of Jinachandra, was placed by Jinamahendrasuri in 1844 A.D.⁵

Rajendra Simha was the successor of Mularāja in whose reign, Jainism made further progress. Inspired by the discourses of Jinachandrasuri, the Saṅgha constructed the temple of Ādinātha in 1846 A.D. and its installation ceremony was performed by Muni Dūrgarsi.⁶ At Anarasāgara, the *Siddhigya paṭak* was put up by Jinanuktisuri in 1866 A.D. and it was consecrated through Śāhida Chandra.⁷

JAINISM IN JOHPUR AND BIKANER STATES: Jainism flourished in Jodhpur and Bikaner states under the patronage of the Rāṭhoda rulers. During their reign, temples were constructed and images were installed in them. These Rāṭhoda rulers had deep reverence for Jain saints, and they often used to pay visits to them. The official reception was accorded to them on the occasion of their visit to their capitals.

The Jain religion was quite popular at Nāgara, three miles from Jalota which was ruled by the descendants of Mallinātha, ruler of Kheda, the old capital of Jodhpur state. The Rāṭhoda rulers of this place were liberal in their outlook; and therefore, Jainism flourished exceedingly in their reign. Jain temples were built and repaired. In 1459 A.D., Govindā Rāṭh gave donations to the temple of Mahāvīra on the advice of Mohanji-guni during the reign of Raduḍa.⁸ The inscription of 1511 A.D. in the temple of

1. *Ibid.*, No. 2594.

2. *Ibid.*, No. 2586.

3. *Ibid.*, No. 2460.

4. *Ibid.*, No. 2542.

5. *NJI*, pt. III, No. 2630.

6. *Ibid.*, No. 2524.

7. *NJI*, pt. III, No. 2618.

8. *NJI*, No. 691.

Rishabh of the reign of Rāula Kumbhakapa records the erection of *satīmanapīpa* of Vimalanātha temple by the *śaṅkha* of Viramapara.¹ The *satīmanapīpa* of Siminātha was completed in 1557 A.D., when Rāula Meghavijaya was the king.² The inscription of 1580 A.D. records the repairs of the temple when Rāula Meghavijaya was reigning and Parama Bhagāraka Śū Hīravijayavari was the Pontiff who visited the court of Akbar.³ In the reign of Rāula Teja Sinhha, the *śaṅkha* repaired the temple of Siminātha.⁴ The inscription in the temple of Rishabhadeva records some reconstruction in 1610 A.D. when Rāula Teja Sinhha was reigning and Bhagāraka Vijayadevasuri was the pontiff.⁵ The Jaina community of this place constructed a *chaturbhūṭa* in the temple of Mahāvīra in 1621 A.D. through the favour of Nākoḍī Pārśvanātha in the time of Rāula Jagamala.⁶ In 1624 A.D. a *virupakṣachaturbhūṭa* together with three windows was constructed in the temple of Pārśvanātha by the Jaina community when Rāula Jagamala was ruling.⁷

The Rāthoda rulers of Jodhpur State followed the policy of religious toleration, so Jainism prospered under their rule. In 1612 A.D., during the reign of Surya Sinhha, Vasupāla with his wife and son celebrated the installation ceremony of the image of Pārśvanātha.⁸ Bhāmā with his wife, sons and grandsons set up the image of Pārśvanātha at Kāpaḍī in 1621 A.D. when Gaja Sinhha was ruling.⁹ This inscription is important in so far as it points out to the fact that Kāpaḍī, the portion of Sirohi state at that time, was under the possession of the Rāthoda ruler of Jodhpur. More probably, it came under their sway when Śūrtāna Sinhha was reduced to submission by Surya Sinhha. It is clear from the inscriptions that new images were set up in the temples of Ādinātha, Mahāvīra and Pārśvanātha by Jagamala in 1626 A.D. during the reign of Gaja Sinhha at Jālor.¹⁰ The images were also installed at Marṇī¹¹ and Pīlī¹² in 1629 A.D. during his reign. The inscription on the image of Marṇī says that Bāi Puresīmanpā with his sons installed the image of Sumatinātha. From the inscription on the image of Pārśvanātha at Pīlī, we learn that, when Gaja Sinhha was reigning and Amara Sinhha was the heir

1. PRAS., WC., 1911-12, p. 54.

2. Ibid.

3. Ibid.

4. PRAS., WC., 1911-12, p. 54.

5. Ibid.

6. Ibid.

7. Ibid.

8. N.J.L., No. 773.

9. Ibid. No. 981.

10. PRAS., WC., 1908-09, p. 55.

11. N.J.L., No. 783.

12. PRAS., WC., 1907-08, p. 49.

were looted by Turāṇakhān and thus saved them from destruction.¹ This is evidently an exaggerated account. Turāṇakhān had probably nothing to do with Akbar. He might have been a local fanatic chief who indulged in iconoclasm. Karama Chandra celebrated the *Yasopadhinipadotsava* of Jinachandra Suri at Lahore in which Mahārājā Rāya Siṃha with Kachhava Dalepara Siṃha participated and presented many religious manuscripts to Suri.² Mahārājā Rāya Siṃha had good relations with Jinachandra Suri who was the *Paṇḍitara* of Jinachandra Suri. In his reign, Hammira with the members of his family established the image of Neminātha in 1607 A. D.

Karja Siṃha became the ruler in 1631 A. D. Jainism continued to grow during his reign. He granted land for the construction of the Jaina Upāsāra. The relations of Mahārājā Anapa Siṃha with Jinachandra Suri and the Jaina poet Dharmavardhana were intimate and cordial. The poet Dharmavardhana Suri composed a panegyric in Rājasthānī language on the coronation ceremony of king Anapa Siṃha who was a renowned patron of art and literature. Between Jinachandra and the several rulers of Bikaner such as Mahārājā Anapa Siṃha, Jorāvra Siṃha, Sujana Siṃha and Gaj Siṃha, there was a considerable correspondence. Mahārājā Ratana Siṃha became the ruler in about 1761 A. D. He was devoted to Jaina saints. He used to regard Jāṇasīgara as the Avatāra of Nārāyaṇa. He granted land for the construction of a number of Jaina Upāsāras. He had very great respect for Dādāsūhṛa and gave the land of 150 *bhūṭas* to meet the expenses of the worship of Dādāji.³ He was succeeded by Mahārājā Ratana Siṃha in 1828 A. D. He continued to show respect towards Jaina teachers and Jainism.

JAINISM IN JAIPUR STATE: The Jaina religion also prospered under the Kachhāhāra rulers of Jaipur who extended patronage to it. About fifty Jainas acted as *dīkṣitars* in the State, and under their patronage various copies of the Jaina scriptures were prepared; a large number of temples were constructed; and the consecration of the images was celebrated. At the same time, Jainism flourished in the different parts of the Jaipur State in the *jāgṛadhārīs* of several powerful *śhākhās*.

1. *Bikaner Jaina Lekha Sangraha*, p. 27, (Introduction).

2. *Ibid.*, p. 7.

3. *Bikaner Jaina Lekha Sangraha*, pp. 8-11 (Introduction).

Japur State remained the stronghold of the Jaina religion in the medieval period. In 1118 A.D., during the reign of Kanna Chanda, a copy of *Bhadrabadharina* was written.¹ Copies of the *Pāṇḍurāgama*² and *Harimaiti-jataka*³ were written in the temple of Neminātha in 1119 A.D. during Bhāramala's rule. After Bhāramala, Bhagavāna Dāsa became the ruler. In his time, the copy of the *1. ardhambadharina* was written at Māhapatā.⁴

Janism continued to develop in the reign of Māna Śiṅha. In his reign, the copy of the *Harimandapavāna* was written in the temple of Ādinātha at Alāhapurā in 1580 A.D.⁵ In his time, Thāna Śiṅha of Khajurāhāvā came led the Saivya to Pivāpurī in Bihar where he performed the installation ceremony of the *Shajjāhārana* Yānta in 1591 A.D.⁶ The inscription of 1603 A.D. on the large pillar states that during the reign of emperor Akbar and his feudatory Māna Śiṅha, the pillar was erected by Bhagāraka Chandra-kīrti residing at Champāvat⁷ known as Clāusa. The two copies of the *Harimandapavāna* were written in 1603 A.D. and 1607 A.D. respectively at Rājmandula⁸ and Saigraṇāpurā⁹ (modern Saingāner) in his reign. The inscription of 1607 A.D. points out that the consecration ceremony of the images on a large scale was celebrated at Manjandulā by Jētī with his sons and grandsons when Māna Śiṅha was ruling.¹⁰

Jainism also continued to develop even in the reign of Muṣā Rāy Jya Simha. There is an inscription of 1654 A.D. engraved on a slab in the Digambara Jaina temple of Gadhī at Sārngānara of the time of the emperor.

1. P. S., p. 149.
2. Ibid., p. 126.
3. Ibid., p. 77.
4. Ibid., p. 170.
5. Ibid., p. 73.

[illegible]

7. *AKURMA*, 1927-28, No. 11. 8. *P. S.*, p. 72. 9. *Ibid.*, p. 72.

10) सुनवा १६६४ वर्षे ज्येष्ठ कृति १ सोमवार शुक्लपक्षे महानवमिणाक्षरा रावतिदिने रात्रि मा. श्री प्रसन्नवत्सलसहित बहुश्रुत श्री कविकीर्ति भा. वृत्त मा. श्री वैष्णवीमितादाचार्य महोदयसमक्ष श्रीमान श्री सायुज्यवत्सलसमक्ष महोदय सलिलस्य कविकीर्ति पाठादौ रचिते मा. भासा. कथायां शक्यते तयो वृत्त सकल सा. भाषण, हि रेखा, गुणस्य मा. जेता सायुज्य वनवीर, स्वामी, कर्तुष्य लखन, भवभूत, मनीषी, शक्यता श्रीमानसहित महोदयैः कियं प्रणमति ।

Shihajhān and Rājā Jaya Sīnha.¹ The inscription in the Jaina temple at Amber says that the Chief Minister, Mahana Dās, of Jaya Sīnha of Khamel-wala caste built the temple of Vimalakīśa at Ambāvatī (Amber) and adorned it with golden *śalaka*. It further mentions that in 1659 A.D., when Mahārājādhirāja Mahārājā Jaya Sīnha was ruling at Ambāvatī as a great feudatory of emperor Shihajhān, some additions were made to the temple by the Chief Minister of Mahārājā Jaya Sīnha.²

Sawālī Jaya Sīnha, the celebrated scholarly ruler of Jaipur, was served by three Jaina *dharma*s namely Rāma Chandra Chhābharī, Rāva Kripā Rāma and Vījaya Rāma Chhābharī. These statesmen tried their best for the propagation of the Jaina religion. Rāma Chandra constructed the Jaina temple at Shilashālā midway between Jaipur and Rāmgaḍh. He and his son Kīśana Sīnha participated in the function of the *patra* ceremony of the Bhagāraka Devendrakīrti. It is described in the *Jaharī* of Bhagāraka Devendrakīrti, composed by Nemichandra.³ Rāva Kripā Rāma also took a keen interest in religious affairs. He built a Jaina temple at Chāsa. The big Jaina temple in the Chhāsaū kā Chūka at Jaipur was constructed by him. He also constructed a Chahvālaya for worship in his house. Besides, he participated in the function of the *patra* ceremony of the Bhagāraka Mahendrakīrti and sprinkled water over his head. This is written in the *Jaharī* of Mahendrakīrti composed by Pt. Akhāt Rāma.⁴ Vījaya Rāma got the *Sampātkāśamandī* written and presented to Pt. Govardhana in 1740 A.D.⁵ The copy of the *Karmakāṇḍikā* was also written in his reign.⁶

Even during the troubled reign of Sawālī Mādho Sīnha the Jaina religion continued to thrive. He was also served loyally like his father by several Jaina statesmen. Bāla Chandra Chhābharī became the Chief Minister of Sawālī Mādho Sīnha in 1761 A.D. Before him, an intolerant Brāhmana,

1. AJRMA., 1026-26, No. 11.

2. Ibid., 1023-34, No. 13.

3. संपत्ती अखिलदास जी आश्रय, दीवान: रामचन्द्र निजगन्धर्वजी ।
(*Gutakā* No. 180 in the temple of Pīṭhāl at Jaipur).

4. स्वदास रामदास जी आश्रय, दीवान: रामचन्द्र निजगन्धर्वजी ।
(*Gutakā*, No. 180 in the temple of Pīṭhāl at Jaipur).

5. Copy of this manuscript in *Amerāthapāḍā*.

6. PS., p. 7.

named Syāma Rāma had destroyed many Jaina temples. Bāla Chandra gave a new life to Jainism. He renovated the old Jaina temples and constructed several new ones. In 1764 A.D., *Indradhanjya Puja Mahotsava* was celebrated at Jaipur by the efforts of Bāla Chandra who had a great influence in the State. The State provided all help and facilities for this function.¹ *Dīvāna* Ratana Chandra Sāha built a Jaina temple and participated in *Indradhanjya Puja Mahotsava*. Nanda Lal constructed the Jaina temples at Jaipur and Sawānādhopura. He also celebrated the installation ceremony of the images on a large scale as advised by Bhagvāta Surenadrāsī in the reign of Prithvi Śiṃha in 1769 A.D. at Sawānādhopura.² *Dīvāna* Keśari Śiṃha Kāsāivāla built the beautiful Jaina temple of Śrāmaṇiyā at Jaipur. Kambhaiyā Rāma built the Jaina temple known as '*Vaidhyānaka Chattrālaya*' at Jaipur in the time of Mādho Śiṃha.

Rāja Chandra Chābārī, son of Bāla Chandra, served Jagat Sīnha as his Chief Minister. He was a man of religious inclinations. He led the Saṅgha to many holy places. He was, therefore, given the title of *Saṅghapati*. He performed the *Yantra Pratishtha* at Junagadh as advised by Bhadrāśaka Surendrakīrti in 1801 A.D.* On the instruction of the same Bhadrāśaka, in 1824 A.D., he performed the consecration ceremony of the images on a large scale at Jaipur.* Bakhām Rāma also remained the Divān of Jagat Sīnha. He took much interest in matters of religion. He built the Jaina temple at Chodāśrī at Jaipur which is known as the temple of *Yati Yādavī Nānāji*. He constructed the Jaina temple at Durgāpur known as the temple of

1. *Prasasti* pp. 29-30. An invitation letter was sent to different places for *Indradhara* Papi Mahatma.

भारत पूजाओं से जगति जो चरत चाहिये सो हो परवार न से जाओ ।

३. संख्या १८६६ नं०का नुसरी ६ घुसवागरे पुण्ड नक्षत्र नगरी समीपस्थ भवता हामिसाज श्री भुवनेश्वरजी साजो मूलस्थ नं०काभगो भवताभगरे रामे शरद्वर्षी चण्डे कुपकुपवागेको भवताभग श्री भुवनेश्वरजी मूलस्थमात्र संनंदाखिल प्रतिष्ठा करासित ।

३. सकल ईदपूर तथा वैशाख मासे कुळा गळे द्यावी. पुढापावे वी गुरुवारी नवरात्र वी सुनंदादीनी उपवेद्या. पुढासह मासे वैशाखासह सकलमासासह साकश मासे गवळी पाचपन्नास धनद्विज्या कनपिडा.

४. तबतः १८६१ धैजात सुदी ५ सोमवार भूतार्द्र रात्रि सुदूरगत् श्री सुनेन्द्रदेवि। त्वं जगद्व्याप्य
जामल चोदो संपदी रागकलेन प्रविष्टा वसिष्ठिका । पवित्र ममकलेन निज प्रणमति ।

Rodhapur. This name was given after the name of his friend. A Jaina temple was constructed by him at Annapurā near Chittor which was given to him as a *Jāgīra* for his salary.

Jainism flourished in different parts of the Jaipur State, which were ruled by small feudatory rulers. In 1694 A.D., during the reign of Vijaya Shikha, Jodā of Jobanera with his sons set up the images.² He seems to be the feudatory chief of Jobanera. The inscription of 1693 A.D. points out that during the reign of Shālipān, when Arjuna Gaṇḍa was ruling over Mālapurā, Saṅghā Nāṭī, Bāikhā, Saubha and Lāla Chanda performed the installation ceremony of the big Daśalakṣha Yāntṛa.³ This inscription is historically important as it points out that Mālapurā, once under the rule of the Kachchhāvā rulers of Jaipur, came under the control of Arjuna Gaṇḍa, the ruler of Māroṭha.

Jainism was also prevalent at Revāḍī. An inscription of 1622 A.D. records that during the reign of emperor Pāishā Akbar and his subordinate Chief Maṇḍavādhirāja Rāyasālā of Kachchhāvā family, the temple of Adinātha was constructed by Sāha Jīamālā and his brother Nāthamālā, the two sons of Devādīta, the Chief Minister of Rāyasālā. Devādīta belonged to a Khaṇḍelavāḍa family. The inscription further states that the temple was built under the advice of Yāsakīrti belonging to Mulavāṅgha.⁴

Bairat in the time of Akbar was ruled by his official Indrarāja. The inscription of 1587 A.D. engraved on the wall of the temple of Pārāśaramāta states that Indrarāja, a Śākhā *hūyā*, erected this temple which was named both *Mahadeva Prasāda* and *Indra Tirtha* and dedicated it to Vimalamūṛha.⁵

1. सन १७५१ का वर्षी ज्येष्ठ मसी ३ सुनवासरे श्री सुनवास में श्री राजकीर्तिकेवा, म श्री स्वकीर्तिकी लक्ष्मणी श्रीलक्ष्मणकी श्रीअपुत्र लालबा लाल श्री निवेदीविहारी राजा होला कीसे साहू हाथीदर लक्ष पुत्र का जैमा का पुत्र ही प्रथम पुत्र के लक्ष्मणवास, इसीके पु श्रीमती संमती देवदेव एवं निवे प्रतीकटा अर्पित ।

2. संवत् १७२० वर्षी माह सुदी ५ सुवर्णविहारे गजिकाश श्री प्रहलदजी प्रसादे दालपुर नगरे महाराज श्री अर्जुन शिख शर्मा श्री सुनवास लक्ष्मणान राणे सख्खीमण्डे लक्ष्मणान कुवकुलवासीयन महाराज श्री सख्खीमण्डे लक्ष्मण महाराज ईश्वरकीर्ति लक्ष्मण महाराज श्री नरीश्व कीर्ति लक्ष्मणान मण्डलवासीयन लक्ष्मण शिख माह लक्ष्मण शर्मा पुत्रावर्गे — श्रीमती मण्डी संमती श्री लाला, श्रीमा साहू श्री राणे लालबाक एवं प्रतीकटकीन श्री वृद्धे दालबाण शिख मिल प्रार्थमत्वे ५ संवत्मास जिनमास ।

3. ARHMA., 1034—35, No. 11.

4. PRAS. WC; 1800-10, pp. 44-45.

have been discovered at the places such as Ajitghadia,¹ Nangūmū² and Rājagolha.³ They indicate that Jainism existed in this region in early medieval period when it was ruled over by the Gurjara Pratihāras. Even afterwards, during the reign of Khānṣādīs, Jainism remained associated with this region in the 15th or 16th century A.D. These Khānṣādīs were originally Hindus who were converted to Islam during the reign of Fīroz Tughlay in the 14th century A.D. By nature, they were tolerant and showed great regard towards Jainism.

Alwar became the place of pilgrimage in the medieval times and it was visited by several pilgrims. In the *Tirthānūktā*⁴ written in the medieval period, it has been described as a holy place of Rāvana Pārśvanātha. It means that Rāvana worshipped the image of Pārśvanātha in this place. It, therefore, began to be called Rāvana Pārśvanātha Tīrtha. It is all legendary but it indicates the importance of Alwar as a centre of religion. It appears that the town Pārśvanagar near Alwar derived its name from the Jaina Tirthānūktara Pārśvanātha. As extensive Jaina totes abound in Pūtanagara, it may be possible that this place was associated with the Jaina Tirthānūktara Pārśvanātha in early times.

As Alwar remained the holy place of Jains in medieval times, Jaina scholars and saints resided at this place and carried on their literary activities.⁵ Some works such as *Manuśikāśaśāstram* in 1467 A.D. by Śādhukīrti, *Śaṅgīyamanuśikāśaśāstravṛtti* in 1642 A.D. by Śivachandra, *Darśanānubhāṣṇī* by Lālachandra in 1623 A.D. and *Mahāpārśva-champū* in 1821 A.D. by Vinayachandra have been composed in Alwar. Some copies of the manuscripts such as the *Harisūktata*, *Laṅka-Naṅghatrayī* in 1541 A.D. and *Laṅka-kibettamanuśavṛtti* in 1546 A.D. have been prepared in Alwar. Even at Tijārā⁶ and Bahādurapur,⁷ several copies of the manuscripts were written during the reign of the Khānṣādīs in the 15th and 16th centuries.

Temples were constructed and images were placed in them during the reign of the Khānṣādīs in the 15th and 16th centuries. A Jaina inscription of 1516 A.D. records the construction of an Adināthacharya at Bahadrayapura by Śrīmāla Śarigṛha and the installation of an image therein was

1. ARIMA, 1018—10, Nos. 4, 9 and 10;

2. Ibid., 1910—20, Nos. 3 and 4.

3. Archaeological Survey Reports, XX, p. 124.

4. *Jaina Saṅga Prākāśa*, X, p. 99.

5. *Āśvini*, I, No. 12.

6. *Śrī-Pratīkṣī-Saṅgīraha*, pp. 96, 106, 116, and 125.

7. Ibid., pp. 39 and 51.

made by Āchārya Dharmaratna Suri.¹ In 1531 A.D. a Śrīvaka of Upakeśa caste belonging to Aiswar installed the image of Samarānatha through Siddha Suri.² Bhadrabāka Bhushapa of the Kāśāpā Saṅgha performed the installation ceremony of an image at this place in 1619 A.D.³ An inscription of 1628 A.D. engraved on a slab of stone built into the wall of a Jaina temple, now used as a house by a Thākura at Aiswar, records the construction of a temple of Rāvaṇa Pārīvatātha and consecration of his image by Hiraṇanda of Osavāla caste originally of Delhi and then residing at Agra.⁴

DESTRUCTION CAUSED BY THE MUSLIMS: Jainism under Rājput rulers remained some how safe and secure from Muslim invasions but still it could not escape their ravaging effects entirely. They raged many of the Jaina temples to the ground, massacred the followers of Jainism and destroyed libraries. Most of the beautiful Mohammedan mosques were built out of the ruins of the Jaina temples which provide elegant pillars and the richly carved horizontal domes.

From the inscriptions of the temple at Pāli, it seems that the temple now known as Pārīvatātha was originally dedicated to Mahāvīra.⁵ This change must have been brought about by an invasion of the Mohammedans who came to Pāli and destroyed the image. From the *Tarikh-i-Furishā* also, it appears that Qutubuddin Aibak, slave of Muhammad Ghori, was the only Muslim emperor who captured Pāli. In 1196 A.D., we are told that Qutubuddin, on his way to Ajahlavāda, took the forts of Pāli and Nādol. When Pāli entered at the hands of Mohammedans, the Jaina temple must have undoubtedly suffered from their iconoclastic fury. When the time came for renovating it, the name of the Tirthaṅkara, to whom it was dedicated, was probably forgotten.

Adhāt-dīnā kī Jhonpattī is said to be a Jaina temple in the past. It was destroyed by the ignorant bigotry and fanaticism of the Afghans of Ghor who attacked Ajmer under Muhammad Ghori in 1192 A.D. They converted it into a mosque; the alteration consisted principally in the addition of the magnificent screen wall, consisting of seven arches fronting the western side, and the insertion in the back wall of the inevitable mihrab or arch

1. Archaeological Survey Reports, XX, p. 119.

2. NRI, No. 1464.

3. *Bhadrabākasampradāya*, No. 680.

4. ARIMA., 1919-20, No. 15.

5. PRAS., WC., 1907-08, pp. 43-44.

inseparable from a mosque and the erection of a pulpit or minbar near it. The *inaungla* or *malah* in white marble was built in 1199 A.D. and the green wall was added during the time of Sultan Shamsuddin Iltutmish in about 1213 A.D. Thus, the work of conversion lasted from 1199 to 1213 A.D.

From the two Sanskrit and two Persian inscriptions, it is clear that *Jinā Masjid* at Sanchi was built with the materials obtained by demolishing the old Jaina temple of Mahāvira in the reign of Nasim-ud-din, son and successor of Alaud-din Khilji.¹ From the *Tirtha-kalpa* of Jinapradha, it is clear that at Sanchi, there was a celebrated Jaina temple of Mahāvira. From its account, it appears that the temple was in danger of being destroyed by the Mohammedans and that it was at last attacked in 1210 A.D. by Alauddin who carried away the image to Delhi and broke it to pieces. *Tarikh-i-Firidha* also describes this event.

From the inscriptions on the pillars of the mosque at Jalor in Marwar, it is clear that it was built from the materials of at least four different temples of which, one was a Hindu temple. The remaining three were Jaina temples and were dedicated to the Tirthaṅkaras Adinātha, Mahāvira and Parivānātha.²

From the inscriptions in the temple of Neminarātha at Jiravali in Sirsi state, it is clear that it was originally dedicated to Parivānātha. There is found a story among the inhabitants of this place about the change of denomination. They narrate that during the regime of the Muslim King (whom they called Bokada Phalashah) the temple was attacked, desecrated and plundered by a band of Mohammedan troops. During this raid, the image of Parivānātha was pulled down and smashed to pieces by the bigoted iconoclasts.³

The invasion of Kāmran, the brother of Humāyun, on Bikaner in 1554 A.D. is only known from the inscription on the image in the temple of Chintāmapī at Bikaner. At this time, he also destroyed the Jaina temples.⁴ The *Atsam* of Kanaksona gives an account of the destruction caused by Turāsānā Khān to the images of Sirsi.

1. PRAS., WC., 1907-09, p. 34-35.

2. *Vividha Tirtha-kalpa*, pp. 28, 30.

3. PRAS., WC., 1908-09, p. 54, 57.

4. PRAS., WC., 1916-17, p. 67.

5. *Bikaner Jaina, Pichha Samgraha*, No. 2.

The tower Sūhāśīda in Kathi state was so named by Aurangzeb when, during his march from Delhi to South, he stayed for a day at this place. He destroyed the Hindu and Jain temples and out of this material, erected a small mosque copying the pattern of Jāmī Masjid of Agra. The Mughal soil sands and the material used when properly scrutinised reveals the iconoclastic zeal of this great monarch.

From the above discussion of the subject, it stands clearly revealed that Jainism was in existence in very early times and it flourished from the 8th century to the present day exceedingly in Rajasthan. It enjoyed the patronage of the rulers, generosity of the administrators, munificence of the merchants, and the respect of the masses. But still, there are the incidents which point out that it could not remain immune from the Muslim attacks.

CHAPTER III

DIVISIONS AND SUB-DIVISIONS OF JAINISM

The Jain religion like other religions of India has suffered from the tendency of schisms and secessions from the very beginning. The different sects gradually sprang from time to time on account of the different interpretations put on the canonical texts. The Jain church consisted of the various local *śaikhas*, and there was no central organisation to co-ordinate them. The circumstances of the particular time also compelled them to give up old ideas and to adopt new ones. Some persons ambitious and capable of aspiring to leadership wanted new sects only for their personal name and fame. Such a tendency no doubt did more harm than good to the cause of Jainism.

IN THE TIME OF MAHĀVIRĀ: Even in the time of Lord Mahāvira, Jainism was not free from schisms. There were the followers of Pārśva who believed in the four vows (*cātvarthīya-dharma*), to which Mahāvira is said to have added the vow of chastity. An attempt was also made to compromise and the followers of Pārśva joined the church of Mahāvira.

The sect of Ājīvika existed even as early as the time of Mahāvira. Their leader was Gosāla Makkhaliputra. The word Ājīvika indicates a pro-

means for livelihood and not a religious sect. The name was given to it by its opponents but afterwards, the offensive meaning of the name gradually disappeared. In earlier years of their ascetic life, Mahāvīra and Gosāla had been mutually associated but later on it was the conduct of Gosāla that was responsible for their separation.

SVETĀMBARAS AND DIGAMBARAS: The Svetāmbaras and the Digambaras both are found in large numbers in Rajasthan. Their separation took place in 79¹ or 82² A.D. The Svetāmbaras give the following explanation of the origin of the Digambara sect³. A saint named Sivabhatti was given a costly blanket by the king of Rathavāṅgura. He became very fond of it. His preceptor noting his fondness for the blanket ordered him to part with it, but he refused to do so; and in an angry mood, he ran away leaving it behind. He founded the Digambara sect. This account is however incredible because no householder, according to the Jain scriptures, likes the giving of a costly blanket to a saint who is expected to live on restricted charity. Further, even assuming that the saint ran away naked leaving his blanket behind, how could he hope to gather followers for a doctrine which was not popular? In order to prove their priority, the Svetāmbaras advanced the following arguments.

1. The Svetāmbaras possessed all the twelve Aṅgas, the sayings of the Tirthaṅkaras, except Dṛṣṭivāda, while the Digambaras had none. The literature of the Digambaras was composed by them after their coming into being in 82 A.D.

2. In the Āgama literature of the Svetāmbaras, there is no mention of the Digambara sect. It indicates that Aṅgas of the Svetāmbaras are of ancient times and were composed before the coming of the Digambara sect into existence.

3. There is a description of Gosāla Ājīvika in the Buddhist *Pitakas* and *Bhagavati-Sūtra* but it is not found in the very old Digambara Jain literature.

4. The Jain inscriptions of Mathura clearly indicate that the names of *Comas* and *Kulas* are similar to those found in the *Nihonmōdō* of the *Kalpasūtra*.

1. *Darśanaśāstra*, p. 7.

3. *Ibid.*, p. 272.

2. *Saṃvatsara Bhagavān Mahāvīra* Vol. IV, Nihonmōdō, p. 260.

The Digambaras also give the explanation of the origin of the Svetāmbhara sect which is as follows.¹ A terrible famine visited Magadha in 297 B.C. and 1,000 monks under the leadership of Bhadrabāhira with Candakagupta Maurya moved on to the South. Some monks under the leadership of Śhalabhadra stayed in the North. After the famine, Bhadrabāhira returned to the North and found that the northern monks had deviated from certain fundamental principles of Jainism and started to put on clothes. But the actual and final schism took place after two centuries, when the unity of the order was lost for ever. The following arguments may be advanced in order to prove the priority of the Digambara sect.

1. At the time of Alexander the Great's raid across India, the Digambaras were still numerous enough to attract the notice of the Greeks who called them Gymnosophists or naked philosophers.

2. At Mathura, the two Jaina temples of the early Christian era have been discovered.² It seems that these temples belong to the Digambaras, because the images placed in them are nude. The pictures of the saints and the ascetics on the wall of the Hathīgumphā inscription are also nude.

3. The Ājīvika and the Yāpanīya, the sects of the Jains, adopted the practice of nudity of the Digambaras. It seems that this was the original practice and, therefore, they have accepted it. The Ājīvikas and the Yāpanīyas later on merged themselves among the Digambaras, the original sect but not among the Svetāmbhars. This also leads to the priority of the Digambara sect.

The five main tenets in which the Digambaras and the Svetāmbhars hold different views are: (a) the Tirthaṅkaras must be represented as nude and unadorned and with down cast eyes; (b) women cannot obtain *moksha*; (c) Mahāvīra was never married; (d) once a saint had obtained *kevala jñāna*, he needed no food in morsels, but he could sustain life without eating; and (e) the ideal ascetics must be nude.

SAMGHA, GAṆA AND GACCHHĪLA

The Samgha and Gaṇa are well known political terms. The *Samgha-rāja* means the rule of a community and the *gaṇa-rāja* indicates the rule of

1. It has been described in *Bṛhatkathā-kathā* by Haridasa, *Bhadrabāhira-kathā* by Ratnanandī and *Bṛjvād-kathā*.

2. *Jaina Stūpi and other Antiquities*, p. 7. (Int.)

many a republic. In early times, there was perhaps no distinction between political *Saṅgha* and *Gaṇa*, because Pāṇini equates *Gaṇa* with *Saṅgha*. But, in course of time, *Gaṇa* became a branch of *Saṅgha*. The *Saṅgha* and *Gaṇa* in Jainism and Buddhism might have come into existence as imitations of the political *Saṅghas* and *Gaṇas* which thrived in ancient India. Both Mahaveira and Buddha were born and brought up in the republican atmosphere. They had *Saṅghas* around them. It is for this reason that they adopted the name as well as the constitution of the political *Saṅgha* in organizing their religious *Saṅghas*. It is also possible to suggest that the political *Saṅghas* and *Gaṇas* might have been founded in imitation of the religious *Saṅghas* and *Gaṇas* which had existed since the time when the two great religions were organized. The head of the *Gaṇa* was known as *Gaṇadhara*. Both these terms in the political and religious spheres indicate the group of persons with the main characteristic of possessing a mind conscious of certain ideology. The existence of large number of *Saṅghas* and *Gaṇas* in the Jain community in ancient times points out that it was politically and culturally highly organized. It is due to the efficiency of the Church organization that Jainism has survived through all vicissitudes. The *Gaṇas* in course of time also began to be known as *Gāchchhas*.

GĀYA IN THE KALPASUTRA AND KUSHĀNA INSCRIPTIONS OF MATURNA. The *Kalpasūtra* tells us that there were seven schools of thought with their respective branches (*Sākhā*) each of which separated in course of time into its own family (*kula*). It is interesting to note that several of these Jain orders are mentioned in Kushāna records. The seven *Gāyas* are Godāna, Uddēha, Udayāṇika, Vesavātika, Chārana, Mānava and Kausika.¹

The first *Gaṇa* had four *Sākhās* and *Kulas*. The second *Gaṇa* Uddēha was founded by Ārya Rohana and was divided into four *Sākhās* and six *Kulas*. *Nāgahāṭṭa* and *Parthāsaka* *Kulas* of the *Kalpasūtra* may be identified with *Nāgahāṭṭikiyā*² and the *Parthāsāika*³ of the Kushāna records. The third *Gaṇa* Udayāṇika is subdivided into four *Sākhās* and three *Kulas*. None of these can be traced in any of the Kushāna inscriptions. The fourth *Gaṇa* Vesavātika, founded by Kamandakha, was subdivided into four *Sākhās*

1. *Kalpasūtra*, S. B. E., Vol. 22, p. 285.

2. *Id.* Vol. I, No. STX, p. 330.

3. *Léonies*; *Epig. Notes*. I. A. XXXIII, p. 100.

and Kulas. Among these only, the *Melaka-kula*¹ is mentioned in a Kushāṇa grant. The fifth Gana Chetranā identified by BRUNER with Vāmana Gana of the inscriptions was subdivided into four śākhās and seven Kulas.² The Kushāṇa inscriptions refer to several of them.³ The śākhās may be identified with the Hārinandāśākhā, Vajranigari and Śākhāśākhā while the Kulas are to be identified with the Puṣyamitrikā, Āyachetukā and Parikharmikā of the *Kalpāsūtra*. The sixth Gana Māsava was divided into four śākhās and three Kulas. But only a few of these are mentioned in Kushāṇa records. The seventh Gana Kāṇḍi Gana founded by Susthita was subdivided into four Kulas and seven śākhās. Thus Gana is well represented in the Kushāṇa inscriptions.⁴ The śākhās must be identified with the Vapri, Madhyamikā, Uchhāṅgari and the Vātsahya while the Kulas may be identified with the Vāṇiya, Badmadipuka and the Prativāśāṇaka of the *Kalpāsūtra*. The Madhyamikā branch was named after the ancient place Madhyamikā identified with modern Nagari in Mewar. It was founded by Priyagrantha, the second pupil of Susthita and Suprabhūṭika.⁵

The number of the Gachchhas is 84 but it seems to be only conventional. Neither the Castes nor the Gachchhas were formed at one time. They came into existence at different times. Some names of the Gachchhas have no significance but were added simply to make their number 84. This increase in the number started from about the 11th century A.D. At present, their number seems to be about one hundred fifty. Most of the Gachchhas were prevalent in Sindh, Jaisalmer, Marwar and Mewar states. This existence at a particular time points out that there were followers of these Gachchhas at that time. Some of the Gachchhas were named after certain good deeds done by certain persons while others named after individual persons. Some of the ancient Kulas in course of time were also converted into the Gachchhas. The Gachchhas are also territorial in origin.

ACTIONAL GACHCHHAS:

(1) **BRUNER GACHCHHA:** Udhyanasana bestowed the degree of a Śūra on the eight ascetics including Devasuri under the shade of a large

1. E. I., Vol. II, p. 382.

2. BRUNER: *On the Indian Sect of the Jainas*, p. 55.

3. E. I., I, No. VI, pp. 386, 87, 88, 97, 99, 289.

4. E. I., I, No. VI, pp. 385, 87, 88, 97, 99 and 289.

5. *Kalpāsūtra*, S.B.E., Vol. XXII, p. 203.

bamboo tree at a village Teli situated at mount Abu. According to the opinion of some, the degree of the (highest priest) was conferred only on Sarvajavasari. As the degree was conferred under the bamboo tree, the Nirgrantha Gachchha began to be called Vata Gachchha. Vata Gachchha is known also by another name Beldat Gachchha.¹ The earliest inscription of 1086 A.D. of this Gachchha in Rajasthan is found at Kopaṭ in Sirohi State.² The next early inscription of 1148 A.D. is found at Nāḥaḍ in Marwar.³ From the inscriptions it seems that it became popular in Sirohi⁴ and Marwar States in the 12th, 13th and 14th centuries. The inscriptions of the 13th and 14th centuries of this Gachchha are also found in Udaipur and Jaisalmer.⁵

(2) **KHARATARA GACHCHHA:** Kharatara Gachchha is the most famous and influential Gachchha. Jimsivarsari by defeating the Chityavasi in the royal court of Durlabharāja got the title '*Kharatara*' in 1017 A.D. From him started the Kharatara Gachchha.⁶ It arose outside Rajasthan but gathered a large number of followers here. In course of time, it was divided into many branches. The inscriptions of this Gachchha are found in the different parts of Rajasthan. But it remained dominant in Jaisalmer from the 12th century to the 19th century.⁷ The Achāryas of this Gachchha installed several images and wrote many works.

(3) **TAPĀ GACHCHHA:** Jagachandra Suri was not only a scholar but he was also a great ascetic practising penances. He accepted the penance of doing '*Tapā*' for the whole life and passed twelve years in that way. Seeing it Jaitra Siṃha, the king of Mewar, gave him the title of Tapā (which means a real ascetic) in 1218 A.D. From this time, Nirgrantha Gachchha got another name of Tapā Gachchha.⁸ The saints of this Gachchha contributed considerably to the growth of Jainism. Later on, it was also divided into many branches. Vaidika Pustālika Tapā-Gachchha started from Vijayachandra who was the pupil of Jagachandra Suri. From Devendra Suri, there started the Āgini Pustālika Tapā Gachchha. Vijayachandra Suri was indulgent in the performance of religious rites while Devendra Suri devoted himself to the performance of the purifying rites and contributed to the

1. *Sramana Bhagavān Mahāvīra*, Vol. V, Pt. II, *Śthavīrvaṇī*, p. 2.

2. BJS, Pt. I, No. 3.

3. MJL, No. 833 and 834.

4. APJLS.

5. NJL, Pt. I, II & III.

6. I. A., Vol. IX, p. 248.

7. NH, Pt. III.

8. *Sramana Bhagavān Mahāvīra*, Vol. V, Pt. II, *Śthavīrvaṇī*, p. 75.

development of Jainism.¹ The images installed by the Āchāryas of this Gachchha are found in different parts of Rajasthan. But still, it remained strong in Sirohi,² Mewar and Jaisalmer.³

(4) **Ānchala Gachchha:** Vijayachandra Upādhyāya was the first person to start a Gachchha called Vidhipakṣha in order to support the pure rites. Once the merchant Kaji went to Pīṭan. While performing the rites of *padikhamana*, he used the edge of his cloth in bowing down instead of using the '*mahapatti*' (a piece of cloth kept on the mouth by the Jain ascetics). Kumārāpāla asked him the reason of this. The Guru told him about *Vidhi-pakṣha* (the new sect) and then Kumārāpāla used the edge of his cloth (called *śāchala* in Guṇarāṭi) in saluting. Thence forward, Vidhi-pakṣha was called Ānchala Gachchha.⁴

This Gachchha started in 1166 A.D. outside Rajasthan but it spread in Jaisalmer, Udaipur, Jūnāgā in Sirohi State and Nagara in Marwar in the 15th century A.D. as known to us from the inscriptions. Several Āchāryas of this Gachchha composed important works and celebrated the consecration of many images.⁵

(5) **PURNIMIYĀ GACHCHHA AND SĀRDHA PŪRNIMIYĀ GACHCHHA:** From Purpura, it seems to be named Purnimiyā Gachchha. Sārdha Purnimiyā system started in 1179 A.D. The great king Kumārāpāla once asked Hemachandra to call the leader of the Purnimiyā Gachchha in order to inquire whether its followers acted according to the Jain holy books or not. The leader of the Gachchha was called and questioned by Kumārāpāla. But he could not give satisfactory answers, so the ascetics of the Gachchha were asked to go into exile. After the death of Kumārāpāla, Sumatisiddha, the Āchārya of the Gachchha, came to Pīṭan. On being asked by the people about his Gachchha, he said, 'We belong to Sārdha Purnimiyā Gachchha.' The followers of this system do not worship a Jain shrine with fruits.⁶ It originated outside Rajasthan but it gathered the followers here also. It remained very dominant in the 15th century in Jaisalmer and Sirohi States

1. *Samāṃsya II, M.* 2. *ABDS.* 3. *N.H. Pt. I, II & III and P.L.S.*

4. *Śamāṃsya Bhāgavata Mahāvīra*, Vol. V, Pt. II. *Sthavirāvali*, p. 65.

5. *N.H. Pt. II, III, P.L.S. Pt. I, and ABDS.*

6. *Śamāṃsya Bhāgavata Mahāvīra*, Vol. V, Pt. II; *Sthavirāvali*, p. 65.

as it is known to us from the inscriptions. Its inscriptions are also found at Jodhpur and Nagaur in Marwar, Ajmer and Udaipur.¹

(6) **AGARHA GACHCHHA:** Silagumasari and Devabhadrasari were the two Adhīvyas who belonged to Parminēś Gachchha. They joined the Ānandala Gachchha, but they soon left it and started their own sect. They taught that prayers should not be offered to *Kādeva Devast*. Besides this, they propounded some new theories and gave the name of *Agarhika Gachchha* to their section.² This sect either started in 1157 A.D. or 1193 A.D., but in Rajasthan it spread in the 15th century A.D. It was prevalent in Jaisalmer, Ajmer, Jaipur and Nagaur, Barmer and Osia in Marwar State and Sirohi State.³

KULA GACHCHHAS:

(1) **CHANDRA GACHCHHA:** Chandra Kula in course of time was converted into Chandra Gachchha. Its name is also mentioned in the inscription of 1182 A.D. at Jiler in Marwar.⁴ It seems to have been in existence from 1125 A.D. to 1435 A.D. in Sirohi State as known to us from the inscriptions.⁵

(2) **NĀGENDRA GACHCHHA:** From Nāgendra Kula, it became famous as Nāgendra Gachchha. The preceptor of the founder of Anandapūrā-pūrn named Śilagumasari also belongs to this Gachchha. The earliest inscription of 1091 A.D. of this Gachchha in Rajasthan is found at Osia in Marwar.⁶ It became dominant at Jaisalmer from the 15th century to the 16th century. It was in existence at Pali, Nagaur, Sirohi and Udaipur at this time.⁷

(3) **NIYVIRI GACHCHHA:** Probably Niviri Kula in course of time began to be called Niviri Gachchha. In the early inscriptions discovered in Sirohi State, Niviri-kula is mentioned,⁸ but in the inscriptions of 1412 A.D. on the metal image of Śutānāḍha at Udaipur, Niviri Gachchha is mentioned.⁹

1. N.J.I. Pt. I, II and III & APJLS.

2. *Sanskrit Itihasa Mahatma*, Vol. V, Pt. II, *Silagumasari*, Pt. II, p. 66.

3. N.J.I. Pt. I, II and III & APJLS.

4. N.J.I., No. 899.

5. APJLS.

6. N.J.I. No. 792.

7. N.J.I., Pt. I & II.

8. APJLS.

9. PLS. No. 106.

GACHCHHIS NAMED AFTER INFLUENTIAL PERSONS:

(1) **KHAMARARA GACHCHHIA:** The Khamarara Gachchhia in course of time was divided into many branches which were started after the influential persons. Bhāvaśānta Khamarara Śākhā is the 7th Gachchhia-bheda, and it was founded by Bhāvaśāntopādhyāya.¹ In 1641 A.D., there originated the Raṅgavijaya Khamarara Śākhā from Raṅgavijaya Gani. This is the 9th Gachchhia-bheda, and from this Śākhā sprang the Srisārīya Khamarara Śākhā founded by Srisārīopādhyāya as the tenth Gachchhia-bheda.² It seems to have remained in existence at Jaipur in the 19th century.

(2) **TAPĀ GACHCHHIA:** In course of time, the Tapā Gachchhia was also divided into many branches. Some of the branches were named after the great Āchāryas. After the demise of Āchārya Mahārāja Vidyavara Suri, there were the five divisions in Tapā Gachchhia after the names of Āchāryas. One was formed by the followers of Āchārya Mahārāja Deva Suri and known as Deva Suri Gachchhia. The second formed by the followers of Āchārya Ānanda Suri was known as Ānanda Suri Gachchhia. The third division known as Sāgara Gachchhia was organized in 1629 A.D. by Āchārya Rāja Sāgara Suri. The fourth division named Vimala Gachchhia was named after Vimala Suri in 1692 A.D. The fifth division known as Sachvegi Gachchhia was created by Panniyān Satya Vidyaji Gani.³

Pūrīvanātha Gachchhia is also a branch of Tapā Gachchhia. An intelligent man called Pūrīya Chandra took initiation under Śrī Sādhurāma Suri of Nāgaon Tapā Gachchhia in 1573 A.D. About some courses of conduct, he differed from his preceptor and aptly preached his view vigorously. His Gachchhia was named after his own name.⁴ He too believed in image worship, and images have been consecrated by himself and other saints of the Gachchhia.

The saint Kṛṣṇamāhī founded Kṛṣṇamāhī Gachchhia, a branch of Tapā Gachchhia. The earliest mention of it is found in the inscription of

1. IA., V, XI, p. 250.

2. IA., V, XI, p. 250.

3. *Saṃmāya Bhāgavāt Mahāvīra*, Vol. V, pt. II, *Sthāvirāvalī*, p. 170.

4. *Saṃmāya Bhāgavāt Mahāvīra*, Vol. V, Pt. II, *Sthāvirāvalī*, p. 170.

1426 A.D. at Jirivāḍā in Sirohi State.¹ The next mention of it is found in the inscription of 1468 A.D. of Nagaur in Marwar.² In the 15th century, this Gachchha was in existence at Jaisalmer.³

Kamala Kulala is also a branch of the Tapā Gachchha and it became separated as Kamala Kulala in the 16th century. It seems to have remained popular in Sirohi State as known from the inscriptions.⁴

(3) GACHCHHA OF THIS TYPE IN SIROHI STATE: From the name of the Āchārya Pishpālāchārya, it was known Pishpālāchārya Gachchha. It was in existence in Sirohi State from 1151 A.D. as it is known from the inscriptions.⁵ Mahendra Suri Gachchha came into existence after the name of the Āchārya Mahendra Suri. It is mentioned in the inscription of the 15th century at Ajāi in Sirohi State.⁶ Amradevāchārya Gachchha was named after Amradevāchārya. It was in existence at Ajāi and Lātānā in Sirohi State in the 15th century. From the inscriptions, it seems that it was associated with Niyimī Kulā.⁷

(4) GACHCHHA OF THIS TYPE IN JOBHIPUR STATE: From the Āchārya Prabhākara, it became famous as Prabhākara Gachchha. It is mentioned in the inscription of 1515 A.D. found at Mertā in Marwar.⁸ The name of Kadaunadī Gachchha became famous after the name of Kadāivāḍā in 1507 A.D. The name of this Gachchha is mentioned in the inscription of 1626 A.D. of Osā.⁹

(5) COMMON GACHCHHA FOUND IN THE STATES: Dhammaghosha Gachchha was named after Dhammaghosha Suri probably in the 12th or 13th century. It became dominant at places such as Jaisalmer, Udaipur and Nagaur in the 14th, 15th and 16th centuries.¹⁰

From Bhāvadeva Suri, Bhāvadevāchārya Gachchha was named. Bhāvādāra Gachchha and Bhāḍāchā Gachchha also seem to be of the above type. The earliest mention of it is found in the inscription of 1557 A.D. discovered at a village Sīyavā in Sirohi State.¹¹ From the 15th century to 16th century, the existence of this Gachchha in Jaisalmer is known from the inscriptions.¹²

1. APJLS, No. 138 & 141.

2. N.J.L., Pt. II, No. 1275.

3. Ibid. Pt. III.

4. N.J.L., Pt. I, No. 970 & 971.

5. APJLS.

6. Ibid., No. 325.

7. APJLS, Nos. 300, 470, 471, 472 and 473.

8. N.J.L., Pt. No. 764.

9. Ibid., No. 302.

10. N.J.L., Pt. I, II & III.

11. APJLS, No. 309.

12. N.J.L., Pt. III.

Mañadhārī Gachchha was called after Mañadhārī Āchārya. It remained in existence from the 14th century to the 16th century at the places such as Jaisalmer, Udaipur and Sirohi State.¹

Vidyādhara Gachchha was probably named after Vidyādhara Suri. From the 14th century to the 17th century, it seems to have been in existence in Rajasthan. Its inscriptions are found at Osia and Nagaur in Marwar, Nāgā in Sirohi State and Jaisalmer.²

Probably, Vijaya Gachchha was named after Vijayadeva Suri. There is an inscription of 1622 A.D. found at Bhāraja in Sirohi State.³ Another inscription of 1661 A.D. is found at Bāhoarā in Marwar.⁴ In the 19th century, a person belonging to Alwar of this Gachchha performed the installation ceremony of the image.⁵

Rāmasenīya Gachchha was probably named after Rāmasena. The earliest inscription of 1400 A.D. of this Gachchha is found at Nagaur in Marwar.⁶ It seems to have been in existence in Mewar in the 15th century.⁷

Yasa Suri Gachchha was established after the name of the Āchārya Yasa Suri. The inscription of 1181 A.D. of this Gachchha was found out at Ajmer.⁸

TERRITORIAL GACHCHHAS.

(1) GACHCHHAS ORIGINATED FROM THE PLACES IN SIROHI STATE: Sirohi State remained the stronghold of the Jain religion in early Hindu period. It was, therefore, natural that the Gachchhas were named after the places thereof. Mañadhārī Gachchha became famous from the village Mañārā in Sirohi State. The oldest inscription of 1430 A.D. of this Gachchha has been found at Mañārā, the place of its origin.⁹ The large number of inscriptions of this Gachchha discovered in Sirohi State indicate that this area remained the stronghold of this Gachchha.¹⁰ In the 14th and 15th centuries, it was also prevalent in Jaisalmer and Udaipur.¹¹

Nānāvāḷā Gachchha and Jūnāskya Gachchha seem to be the one and the same Gachchha. It seems to have originated from the village named

1. N.H., Pt. I, II and III & A.P.I.S., Nos. 82 & 142.

2. N.H., Nos. 798, 1311 & 2278, A.P.I.S., No. 346.

3. A.P.I.S., No. 620.

4. N.H., No. 738.

5. Ibid., No. 1000.

6. N.H., No. 1236.

7. Ibid., Nos. 1080 & 1017.

8. N.H., No. 530.

9. A.P.I.S., No. 66.

10. A.P.I.S.,

11. N.H., Pt. I, II & III.

Nāṭ in Sirohi State. Numerous inscriptions from the 11th century to the 15th century discovered in Sirohi State indicate that it was the centre of this Gachchha.¹ It was in existence at Jaisalmer from the 13th to 15th century.² In the 15th and 16th centuries, it was found in Mewar.³

According to the *Pargana*, Jūṛaḥ Gachchha is a branch of Bhojla Gachchha. It originated from the place named Jūṛaḥ in Sirohi State. It was even in existence in the 14th century at the very place of its origin.⁴

Brāhmaṇa Gachchha among the Jains originated from the place Varmāna the ancient name of which was Brāhmaṇa Maṇḍaḥana. The centre of this Gachchha was the region of Sirohi State from the 12th century to the 16th century A.D. as it is clear from a large number of inscriptions discovered in this area.⁵ It was found at Varmāna in the 12th century A.D. The Jaina temple of Mahāvira of this place belonged to this Gachchha, and it was built in 1185 A.D. or even before by the Śrāvakas or lay disciples. The inscription of 1185 A.D. records that Puriga and other Śrāvakas constructed Padmaśrī of the temple of Mahāvira of Brāhmaṇa Gachchha.⁶ There is an inscription of 1587 A.D. with the name of this Gachchha found at Pāḥi in Marwar.⁷ This Gachchha was prevalent in Mewar in the 14th and 15th centuries and in the 15th and 16th centuries; it was in existence at Jaisalmer.⁸

Kāchhohi Gachchha seems to be connected with the place named Kāchhohi in Sirohi State. It was a branch of the Parmāṇi-paksha. It was in existence in Sirohi State in the 14th and 15th centuries.⁹

(2) GACHCHHAS ORIGINATED FROM THE PLACES IN MARWAR: Upakeṣa Gachchha was named after Chū in Marwar. The inscription of 1202 A.D. with the name of this Gachchha has been also discovered at this place.¹⁰ There is also the inscription of 1357 A.D. found at the village Ajāri in Sirohi State.¹¹ It remained popular from the 13th to the 16th century in Jaisalmer, Udaipur and Sirohi States at a very large number of the inscriptions have been discovered here.¹²

The name of Koraṇṇaka Gachchha was given after Koraṇṇa in Marwar. The earliest inscription of this Gachchha of 1651 A.D. has been

1. APJLS.

2. N.J.L., Pt. III.

3. *Ibid.*, Nos. 1111, 1143 & 1031.

4. APJLS., Nos. 74 and 110.

5. APJLS.

6. *Ibid.*, No. 110.

7. N.J.L., No. 811.

8. N.J.L., Pt. I, II & III.

9. APJLS.

10. N.J.L., Pt. I, No. 790.

11. APJLS., No. 404.

12. N.J.L., Pt. II & III & APJLS.

found out at Pindavīḍī in Sirohi State.¹ From this time to the 16th century it remained in existence in this area.² From the 14th century to the 16th century, it was also prevalent in Jaisalmer.³

Sanderi in Marwar is supposed to be the original seat of Sanderaka Gachchha, founded by Yasodeva Suri who came from Kalaswar because of the fear of the Mlecchhara. He settled with his people at the bank. He saw a fight between the bull and the lion in which the bull emerged victorious. The village and Gachchha were named as Sanderaka Gachchha. This Gachchha spread much in the different parts of Rajasthan. It was in existence at Nāḍol in Marwar in the 12th century.⁴ In the 15th century, it was dominant in Jaisalmer. From the 14th century to the 16th century, it was prevalent in Mewar.⁵

From the place named Hanūṃḍī in Marwar, Hanūṃḍī Gachchha became famous. It is mentioned in the inscription of 1396 A.D. of Udaipur.⁶

Chaitrayāla Gachchha and Chaitra Gachchha seem to be identical. They possibly originated from the place named Chaitrayāla-nagara in Marwar. They prevailed in Jaisalmer and Udaipur from the 13th to the 16th century.⁷

Palliyāla Gachchha originated from Pili of Marwar. It is known both as Palliyāla Gachchha and Palli Gachchha. Palli Gachchha is mentioned in the inscription of 1493 A.D. at Jaisalmer and of 1451 A.D. at Jipur.⁸ Palliyāla Gachchha is found in two inscriptions of the 15th century found at Ajmer.⁹

Nāgaṃḍeva Gachchha originated from Nagaur in Marwar. The disciple of the famous Vāḍḍeya Suri named Padma Prabha Suri pursued hard austerities at Nagaur in 1117 A.D. and he was therefore given the title Nāgaṃḍya Tapa.

Harshapureya Gachchha, a branch of Śrī Pārśvanāthakula, originated probably from the place named Harau situated between Ajmer and Pushkar. Some of the Āchāryas of this Gachchha were very powerful and had great influence over their contemporary rulers. At the request of Abhayadeva Suri, the Chauhān ruler Prithvirāja I of Sākambhari, who lived in 1103 A.D.,

1. APJ.S., No. 100.

2. Ibid.

3. N.J.L., Pt. III.

4. PLS., Nos. 5 & 23.

5. N.J.L., Pt. II & III.

6. PLS., No. 43.

7. N.J.L., Pt. II & III.

8. N.J.L., Nos. 2478 & 577.

9. Ibid., Nos. 333 & 539.

put the golden cupolas on the Jaina temples of Raasthambhor.¹ His pupil was Mahābhārī Hemachandra who had influence over Jayasimha Siddhartha of Gajjar. The name of this Gachchha is mentioned in the inscription of 1498 A.D. found at Nagaur.²

Mandovara Gachchha is a branch of the Kharnara Gachchha. In 1745 A.D., this branch became separated from Jinavardhana Suri at Mandovara and therefore was named Mandovara Sikkh.³

(3) GACHCHHAS ORIGINATED FROM THE PLACES IN MEWAR: Bhartipuriya Gachchha originated from the village Bhartipura now known as Bhagevati in Mewar. It was founded by Bhartipbhaga, the father of the famous King Allau, in the 12th century A.D. This Gachchha is mentioned in an inscription of the 13th century.⁴ Ratnapuriya Gachchha was originally a branch of Madhvalada Gachchha, but afterwards, it became a separate Gachchha after Ratnapura in Mewar. It is mentioned in the inscription of 1455 A.D. on the metal image found in the Jaina temple of Udaipur.⁵

(4) GACHCHHAS ORIGINATED FROM THE OTHER KNOWN PLACES: Kāmyaka Gachchha originated from Kānā in Bharatpur State. It is said that there was a Kāmyaka forest in this area. It is mentioned in the Bayān stone inscription of 1643 A.D. The names of the Jaina teachers Vighni Suri and Mahēsvara Suri are mentioned.⁶ Rudrapalliya Gachchha is a branch of the Kharnara Gachchha. In 1447 A.D. at Rudrapalli, it was founded by Jinālekharāśāhrya.⁷ It is said to have originated from the place named Rudrapalli near Delhi. In the 15th century it spread at Nagaur and Bālonā in Marwar and Jaisalmer.⁸

(5) GACHCHHAS ORIGINATED FROM UNKNOWN PLACES: There are some regional Gachchhas but the places of their origin have not been definitely identified. Pīppālaka Gachchha is also one of the branches of the Kharnara sect. This branch became separated in 1457 A.D. from Jinavardhana Suri.⁹ It was connected with the place Pīppālaka and therefore it was named Pīppālaka.

1. Catalogue of the MSS in the Patan Bhadrāśā, p. 312.

2. N.J., No. 1295.

4. ARMA, Yr. 1923 NO. IX.

6. IA., XIV, p. 8.

8. N.J., Nos. 734, 1207, 1315 & pt. III.

3. IA., XI, p. 240.

5. PLS., Nos. 49, 124 & 256.

7. IA., XI, p. 248.

9. IA., XI, 249.

It seems that both Humlāda Caste as well as Gachchha originated from the place named Humlāda which has not been identified yet. It is mentioned in the inscription of 1196 A.D. of Udupur.¹ Jalvadhara Gachchha originated from the village named Josthūda. This name has been mentioned in an inscription of 1136 A.D. which has been discovered at Ajāit in Sindh Sagar.² This Gachchha was especially connected with Modhavanāda from 1169 A.D. to 1366 A.D.

Bhīmāpallīya Gachchha is a branch of Purgimā Gachchha and originated from the village named Bhīmāpallīya. It is, therefore, known as Bhīmāpallīya Gachchha. It is mentioned in the inscription of 1141 A.D. found at Jodhpur.³ Kanuvapurā Gachchha is one of the branches of Tapā Gachchha. It started from the place named Kanuvapurā. It was prevalent at Nālār in the early 16th century. Indramati of this Gachchha installed the images in 1512 A.D., 1513 A.D. and 1514 A.D. at this place.⁴

OTHER REMAINING GACHCHHAS:

(1) **SOME BRANCHES OF KHARATARA GACHCHHA:** It is mentioned in the *patravālī* that Madhukharatara Śākhā was the first Gachchha-bheda which started in about 1137 A.D. from Juvallabha Suri. Laghukharatara Śākhā, the third schism, was founded by Jina Sindh Sagar in 1274 A.D. In 1361 A.D., *vegada* Śākhā took its rise founded by Dharmā-Vallabha Gopi. It remained dominant from the 16th century to the 19th century in Jaisalmer.⁵ It was the fourth Gachchha-bheda. In 1487 A.D., Āchāryya Khamnara Śākhā were founded by Āchāryya Śāntisāgara in Marwā. This is the sixth division. In 1629 A.D. there originated the Laghuvāchāryya Kharatara Śākhā from Āchāryya Jināsāgara Suri occasioned by Harshanandmā, pupil of Samaya Sundara. This is the eighth Gachchha-bheda in the Khamnara sect.⁶

(2) **GACHCHHAS FOUND IN MARWAR:** Marwar remained the chief centre of the Jain religion, therefore, the followers of the different Gachchhas resided here. Siddhī-suri Gachchha is mentioned in the inscription of 1502 A.D. found out at Jodhpur.⁷ Jāpālāya Gachchha is mentioned in the inscription of 1477 A.D. of Nagaur.⁸ An inscription (19th century) referring to Kavalā

1. N.J.L., No. 1059.

2. A.P.J.S., No. 408.

3. N.J.L., No. 604.

4. N.J.L., Nos. 849, 850 and 851.

5. N.J.L., Pl. III.

6. I.A., XI, pp. 248-249.

7. N.J.L., No. 697.

8. Ibid., No. 1288.

Gachchha is engraved on the pillar of the Jaina temple at Rainapura.¹ The name of Tivādīya Gachchha is found in the inscription of 1442 A.D. of the Jaina temple of Munisavara at Jodhpur.²

(4) **GACHCHHAS FOUND IN JAISALMER STATE:** In Jaisalmer State, Jainism flourished greatly because of its situation in the heart of the desert. Vātapīya Gachchha is mentioned in the two inscriptions of 1105 A.D. and 1231 A.D. discovered at Jaisalmer.³ Sarvada Gachchha seems to be in existence in the 12th and 13th centuries in this area.⁴ In 1364 A.D., Devara Suri of Bīhada Gachchha performed the installation ceremony of the image of Sumatimāha.⁵

(5) **GACHCHHAS FOUND IN JAIPUR STATE:** Some Gachchhas are also found to be mentioned in the inscriptions of Jaipur. In 1472 A.D., the image of Padmasaptadhy was set up by Bhālabars through Vajrasvara Suri of Chāpachāla Gachchha.⁶ In 1442 A.D., Sivrajā celebrated the consecration ceremony of the image of Karuhādha through Padmananda of Rāja Gachchha.⁷ Chāhāitirā Gachchha is mentioned in the inscription of 1355 A.D. found on the Panchatirthi in the Jaina temple of Jaipur.⁸

(6) **GACHCHHAS FOUND IN MEWAR:** There are some Gachchhas which are not known to have been in existence at any other place except Mewar. The inscription of 1117 A.D. with the name of Pūyā Gachchha is found at Udaipur.⁹ In 1141 A.D., Kamdeva of Devābhidra Gachchha performed the installation ceremony of the image through Sila Suri of Devābhidra Gachchha.¹⁰ The inscription of 1449 A.D. with the name of Nīṭhārī Gachchha¹¹ is engraved.

(7) **COMMON GACHCHHAS:** Thāṇḍavādīya Gachchha and Thirūḍā Gachchha seems to be the one and the same Gachchha. In the 12th century, it was in existence in Sisohi State.¹² In the 13th century, it seems to be prevalent in Jaisalmer.¹³ The earliest mention of Pippala Gachchha is in the inscription of 1110 A.D. found at Kojad in Sisohi State.¹⁴ It was in existence from the 14th century to the 16th century in Jaisalmer.¹⁵ Mahukara Gachchha also seems to be known by the name of Madhukara Gachchha which is mentioned

1. *NJI*, No. 717.

4. *Ibid.*, Nos. 2220-22, & 2415.

7. *Ibid.*, No. 1174.

10. *NJI*, No. 1098.

13. *NJI*, Pt. III.

2. *NJI*, No. 616.

5. *Ibid.*, No. 2269.

8. *Ibid.*, No. 1104.

11. *Ibid.*, 1078.

14. *NJI*, No. 906.

3. *NJI*, Nos. 2218 & 2232.

6. *Ibid.*, No. 1159.

9. *Ibid.*, 1042.

12. *APJLS*, Nos. 9, 354 & 460.

15. *NJI*, Pt. III.

in the inscription of 1436 A.D. discovered at Rohildā in Sirohi State.¹ It is also mentioned in the inscriptions of 1470 A.D. and 1506 A.D. discovered at Alwar and Jasalmer respectively.² Rohadliya Gachchha seems to have been prevalent in the area of Jaipur and Nagaur in the 14th and 15th centuries.³

SANGHAS AND GANAS IN DIGAMBARAS:

Mula Sangha: The oldest Sangha in the Digambaras is Mula Sangha. From the inscription of 1100 A.D., it is known that it was founded by Kundakunda.⁴ But this inscription is of a later period, so there is some difficulty in accepting it. The *Pratishthas* inform us that it was established by Māghasāndi before Kundakunda.⁵ There are two inscriptions of about 4th and 7th centuries respectively in which there is the mention of the Mula Sangha and its teachers. It seems that the Mula Sangha was established in the 2nd century A.D. after the division of the Jaina community into the Digambaras and the Śvetāmbaras.

The line (*sanqi*) of Kundakunda seems to have started from Kundakunda who was then a great monk of the Digambaras sect of the Jains. Kundakunda along with the six teachers in succession is mentioned in the copper plate inscription of 456 A.D.⁶ If we take 150 years for the six teachers, the time of the first teacher Gunachandra will be about 306 A.D. Gunachandra was not actually the pupil of Kundakunda but only in his line. Therefore, Kundakunda must have lived in the 2nd century A.D., at least 100 years before Gunachandra. It seems that in the beginning, Mula Sangha and Kundakundāśvaya were separated from each other, because there is no mention of Kundakundāśvaya in the inscription in which Mula Sangha is mentioned and of the Mula Sangha in the inscription in which Kundakundāśvaya is mentioned.⁷ In course of time, Mula Sangha and Kundakundāśvaya became associated with each other. In this way, the beginning of Mula Sangha and Kundakundāśvaya may be safely traced back to the second century A.D.

Mula Sangha, in course of time, became associated with Balakāra Gana which seems to have derived its name *Balakāra Gana* (powerful gana?)

1. APJLS., No. 575.

2. Nil., Nos., 1167, 1169 and 1240.

3. I.A., XX p. 341.

4. Ibid., No. 96.

5. Nil., Pt. I & III.

6. JSLS., Pt. I, No. 55.

7. JSLS., Pt. II Nos. 90 & 94.

8. JSLS., Pt. II Nos. 90, 94 and 95.

from its ancestor, Akhūlbalin, who was also known as Gupti Gupta, the master of Mīghanandi. Its earliest mention is found in the inscription of the 11th century¹ but it was in existence considerably earlier. Afterwards, this was distinguished by the term Samavani. In the 14th century A.D., this name seems to have come from the miracle of the pontiff Padmanandi who is said to have made a stone figure of Sarasvatī speak.²

DRĀVIDA SAMVHA: This has been described as a schismatic Śaṅgha according to the author of the *Darśanaśāstra*. It was established by Vajramandi in 478 A.D. in Drāviḍa country³ near Madras and therefore it was known as Drāviḍa Śaṅgha. The time assigned to the foundation of this Śaṅgha seems to be correct. Vajramandi was a pupil of Āchārya Puṇyapādaśvāmī who lived in the time of the king Divyavāra and the king remained the pupil of Puṇyapāda.⁴ Divyavāra ruled from 478 A.D. to 513 A.D. It seems that in the life time of Āchārya Puṇyapāda, his pupil Vajramandi established an independent Śaṅgha.

KĀSHYAPĀ SAMVHA: Kāshyapā Śaṅgha has been also considered as a heretical sect by the author of the *Darśanaśāstra* like Drāviḍa Śaṅgha. Kumārasena, who had fallen from grace, did not take to the life of monkhood but established a separate Śaṅgha known as Kāshyapā Śaṅgha in 696 A.D.⁵ Nothing can be said definitely about the time assigned to this Śaṅgha.

MĀDHURA SAMVHA: Mādhura Śaṅgha is a heretical sect, which according to the author of the *Darśanaśāstra*, was founded by Rāmakṣena two hundred years after the establishment of Kāshyapā Śaṅgha.⁶ The Śaṅgha was named after Mādhura Deśa now known as Madurā in southern India. The time assigned to it also does not seem to be correct, but there is no doubt that it came into existence after Kāshyapā Śaṅgha.

NO SAMVHAs IN EARLY PERIOD: In early times, the names of the Āchāryas were not associated with the Śaṅghas. Wherever there is a reference to Āchārya, it is only his name that is mentioned. The name of a Gana or Śaṅgha is not given along with him as became the custom in the later period. This is evident from a number of inscriptions of later period found at several places in Rajasthan. A few insurances are quoted here. At

1. JSIS, No. 208.

2. JBERS, No. XLIV, Vol. XVII, p. 163 and Prasad's Report Inscriptions.

3. *Darśanaśāstra*, p. 12. 4. *Darśanaśāstra*, p. 38. 5. Ibid., p. 14. 6. Ibid., p. 17.

Rupnagar, one mile and a half to the south of Kishangirh, there are three Jain memorial pillars.¹ The inscription on the pillar of 961 A.D. says that this is the *mihavādi* of Meghasenācārya set up after his death by his pupil Vinhalasena. From the inscription on the second pillar, it is known that Padmasenācārya died in 1019 A.D. and that the pillar was erected by Chetanandīn. There is also the memorial pillar of 1009 A.D. of Nandavācārya and Baladevācārya at Jhalrapatan.² An inscription on the pedestal of the standing image of Anantanātha in the Digambara Jain temple at Naugānā in Alwar State of 1118 A.D. records that the image was set up by Narendrakīrti the disciple of Āchārya Vijayakīrti.³ An inscription on the pedestal of the Jain image of Śūrinātha in the same temple of 1138 A.D. records that the image was erected by Pt. Guptachandra for Āchārya Guptanandī.⁴ An inscription on the lintel of the temple of Śiva, which originally appears to be a Jain temple near the temple of Bālā at Parāṣāghara about three miles from the city of Jaipur of 1160 A.D., mentions the names of Āchārya Vajraka, his pupil Chharasena and his brother in faith Ambarasena.⁵ From these instances, it is clear that the Digambara Āchāryas were not associated with any Śaigha in Rajasthan.

The above mentioned Śaighas were founded in the South and operated there; but later on, they appeared in the North among the Digambaras. It is not clear why and how this migration took place. It is just possible that by the persecutions of the Saivas, the Digambara saints and the Jain laity of the south migrated to Gujarat and Rajasthan where they founded the same Śaighas. It is also possible to suggest that the Digambaras of the North might have imitated the Śaighas of the South.

MĀTHURA ŚAIGHA IN RAJASTHAN: Māthura Śaigha seems to have remained dominant in Rajasthan during the eleventh and twelfth centuries. At this time, images were installed by the Āchāryas of this Śaigha at different places. There is a mention of Paṇḍita Māhāsena of Māthura Śaigha in the inscription of 1138 A.D. on the stone image of Brahmanāth in the Jain temple of Baghera.⁶ Yalakīrti appears to be the influential Āchārya who performed the consecration ceremony of the white

1. PIRAS., WC., 1910-1911, p. 43.

3. *Ibid.*, 1919-20 No. 3.

5. *Ibid.*, 1920-21 No. 3.

2. ARMA., 1012-13.

4. *Ibid.*, 1910-20 No. 4.

6. *Vivachit*, VI, p. 365.

crises, it is known that the ancient Vāgadh province, now including the area of Durgapuri, Barwara and Panchpuri, was the headquarter of this Saṅgha.

MULASAMGHA IN RAJASTHAN: The Mulasamgha remained very dominant in Rajasthan from the fourteenth century to the nineteenth century A.D., and its Āchāryas remained related mostly with the Kharvelavāda Jains. By their influence, the installation ceremony of the images and that of temples took place. Various copies of the manuscripts have been also prepared.

There is a divergence of traditions found in Paṭṭavālī¹ not only of succession but also about the residence or migrations of the Pontiff of the Mulasamgha. The four Paṭṭavālīs agree on the main points but the fifth Paṭṭavālī presents considerably different traditions. The fifth Paṭṭavālī claims with the name of Sabhachandra who reigned 970-1243 A.D. Hence this is the oldest Paṭṭavālī and as such, the information supplied by it seems to be correct. The Paṭṭavālīs tell us that the first 26 pontificates took place in Bhaddalagara. According to the four Paṭṭavālīs, Bhaddalagara is in Malwa, while the fifth paṭṭavālī tells us correctly that it was in the south. After that, the 27th Pontiff transferred his seat from Bhaddalagara to Ujjain according to all Paṭṭavālīs. From Ujjain, Māghachandra II, the 53rd Pontiff, shifted his seat to Bilau in Kota state in about 1053 A.D. Down to No 63 or 64 the pontificates took place in Baran. From here, 12 pontificates, took place in Gwalior down to 77 according to the four Paṭṭavālīs—but the fifth Paṭṭavālī tells us correctly that ten pontificates were established at Chitor and four at Baghera. This is further confirmed from the fact that there was the existence of a prosperous colony of Digambar Jains on the hill at Chitor at the time of Kumarpāla;² and Bagheravālas were converted to Jainism, and Jain temples were built at Baghera in about eleventh century A.D.³ From the 78th Pontiff Vasantakari, the seat was transferred to Aizer in about 1208 A.D. according to all the Paṭṭavālīs.

From the 84th Pontiff Padmanandi, the seat was transferred to Delhi in about 1312 A.D. according to the four Paṭṭavālīs but the fifth Paṭṭavālī tells us correctly that it was transferred to Idar in ancient Vāgadh province.

1. The first *Paṭṭavālī* was published in Peterson's Report 1883. See the second, third and fourth *Paṭṭavālīs* are given in I.A., XX and the fifth *Paṭṭavālī* is found in I.A., XXI, p. 58.

2. *PRAS.*, w.c. 1003-04, p. 46.

3. *EL*, XXIV, p. 84 (Bijaulia Inscription, Verses 82-83).

Padmanandi was especially associated with Vāgada province. A certain Śrīvaka of Vāgada called Prabhāchandra II of Ajmer was invited for the purpose of performing a consecration ceremony of images but he could not come. Then after giving the *sūmanā* to the Āchārya Padmanandi, the Śrīvaka conferred on him the title of Bhagānaka. Thus, Padmanandi became the Bhagānaka in 1528 A.D. of Vāgada. The term Bhagānaka is applied to a particular type of Jain ascetics who unlike Munis assumed the position of religious rulers and enjoyed supreme authority in religious matters.

After Padmanandi, separations took place among his successive teachers. These separations were not actually the schisms but seem to be based on temperaments. Padmanandi had two pupils namely Sakalakīrti and Śubhachandra. During his life time, the separation took place between his two pupils. One section under Śubhachandra moved to Chitor, while the other continued to live under Sakalakīrti. Again under Jinachandra, the 86th Pārśva, the disagreement arose between his two disciples namely Prabhāchandra and Ratnakīrti. Prabhāchandra continued to live at Chitor, but one section under Ratnakīrti moved to Nagaur. Again, differences arose at Nagaur; and one section continued to reside at Nagaur, while the other under Ratnakīrti shifted to Ajmer. From Chitor, it came to Chitwan in the time of Chandrakīrti. After that, it migrated to Sanganer, Ādivā, Amber and lastly to Jaipur.

No activities of the early Bhagānakas before Padmanandi are known in Rajasthan from any other source. No doubt, there is a mention of Mula Saingha in the inscriptions of 1172 A.D.¹ and 1186 A.D.² but without any reference to any Bhagānaka. From Padmanandi onwards, we possess some knowledge about their activities. They performed the installation ceremony of temples and images and encouraged the preparation of a large number of manuscripts. Their *prabodh* and *śatśloki* are also found.

PADMANANDI: According to the Pargāvalis, Padmanandi became Bhagānaka in 1525 A.D. This date seems to be doubtful as he was living in 1528 A.D. He did enjoy such a long age as known from the Pargāvalis and he,

¹ मूल ११७७ नाम मूर्ती १३ श्री मूलमय म. श्रीवा पुत्र आनन्द प्रमोद विभू ।

(Inscription in Jain temple at Jaipur.)

² मूल ११८१ वैशाख मूर्ती १५ श्री मूलमय देव श्री वासुदेव देवता वासु देवता सुत बर्द्धमान तथा मातदेव तथा मात पुत्र मदिपाळदेव प्रतिष्ठापितमिति ।

(Inscription on the Jain image found in the neighbourhood of Dhāndha Rā Jhūmparā, Ajmer. See JRASB, VII, Pt. 1, p. 61.)

therefore, must have become Bhagīratha sometime after 1325 A.D. He was an influential Bhagīratha who is said to have caused a stone figure of Sarasvatī to speak. From this miracle, Mula Saingha was distinguished by the term Sarasvatī. He made the installation ceremony of images from time to time. The image with the inscription of 1400 A.D. was installed at his bidding.¹ He had two disciples namely Viśālakīrti and Nemiachanda who also set up images in his time. From the inscription of 1413 A.D. engraved on the images discovered at Tank, it is clear that Vilhapa and his sons got installed several images by his pupil Viśālakīrti.² In 1415 A.D., Asapāla on his preaching set up the image of Pārśvanātha.³ In the same year, the consecration ceremony of the image was performed by Āpī through his pupil Nemiachanda.⁴

SARALAKĪRTI: After Padmanandi, Saralākīrti became the head of the seat of Vāgda in about 1420 A.D. He was the highly respected saint of medieval times and had also a good reputation for his scholarship. He wandered from place to place for the propagation of Jainism. In 1424 A.D., he came to Badali where he spent the rainy season with his Saingha.⁵ Several images were installed by him from time to time. There is a mention of his name in the inscription of 1430 A.D. found on the image in the Digambara Jain temple at Abu.⁶ It is known from the inscription of 1433 A.D. that as a result of his preaching, Nisala with his wife, sons and brothers set up the Chaturāṣṭi with Adishesha as a Mahāyāka.⁷ In 1435 A.D., Chaturāṣṭi set up the image of Sūryanātha after hearing his discourses.⁸ He is said to have passed away in 1442 A.D. at Mahāsana in Gujarat.

SHUNYĀKĪRTI: After Saralākīrti, Shunyanākīrti became the Paṇḍita-dhara. He was also a scholar like his predecessor. The consecration function of several images was performed by him. The installation ceremony of the Tāmari was presided over by him in 1493 A.D.⁹ In 1495 A.D., Shunyā—the son of Sūri, performed the Daśalakṣhaṇa Yastra parishat on his

1. NJI, No. 1009.

2. *Pīrāṅpī*, VII.3. *Anchānta*, XIII, p. 126.4. *Ibid.*,

5. JGPS, p. 30 (Int.)

6. *Ibid.*

7. मन्व १४१० वर्षे यन्मास पुरी २ श्री मूल्यके मदीयके कलाकार गये गहरवांस गच्छे श्री कुम्भकृत-
नारान्दके प्रह्लादके श्री कलमके रूपके श्री सकलकीर्ति जनेजाल सुवर्ग जाति गोत्री नीमके भाई गोपी सुन
श्री गोपके भाई जयके भव सोमा भाई राहु जातु वास्य भाई फलकु मन्मथान भाई भयभी मूल्यवर्ग
श्री आदिनाथ प्रविष्टु कारागिर गोरे श्री जनेजेश्वर स्वयम् प्रसादे ।

8. *Anchānta*, XIII, p. 126.

9. In the Jain temple at Jaipur.

instructions.¹ In 1419 A.D., Sorā of his line celebrated the consecration ceremony.² As a result of his preaching, Chāpā and his wife Gaṅgā performed the installation ceremony of some *yantra* in 1471 A.D.³

JĀNABHUSHANA: After Bhuvanakṛti, Jānabhushana became the Bhagāraka. There is a *pantha* of 1577 A.D. consecrated by him in the Jaina temple of Udaipur.⁴ On his advice, Rāma with his wife and son set up the image of Mahāvīra in 1487 A.D.⁵

OTHER BHUPĀRARAS OF THIS SEAT: Jānabhushana was succeeded by Vijayakṛti in about 1700 A.D. At his dismission, Śreṣṭhī Meṭā with his wife, son and brothers made the *pratyakṣā* of *Samarandana* of Ādinātha in 1513 A.D.⁶ Then Sādhuachandra became the Bhagāraka in about 1515 A.D. He was a well known scholar who wrote a large number of works in a period between 1513 A.D. and 1556 A.D. His earliest work is *Adhyātmaparagīṭī* and the latest work written by him in 1556 A.D. is the Sanskrit commentary on the *Jālandarīttīkagāṇaprekṣā*.⁷ On his instructions, Dhannā and his wife Dhannide set up the metal image of Pārivaṇātha in 1538 A.D.⁸ In 1550 A.D., Śreṣṭhī Sāvata with his brothers, wife and son celebrated the function of Jālandarīyāga on his preachings.⁹ After his dismission, Śāpāta erected the image of Śāntarām in 1551 A.D.¹⁰ He was succeeded by Somakṛti. On his instructions, Sāha Jayavanta with his wife and brothers set up the metal

1. सन १५१५ साल सुदी ११ की बुधवार को चण्डिका मठ की बुधवारपूर्विकावे मे. को मण्डपनि स्थापने मे श्री भुवनाकृति उपदेशकान् बुधवारपूर्व की रात पुन बाहर ले गये प्रणयति । (In the temple of Chaulharis, Jaipur.)

2. सन १५१६ वर्ष वैशाख २ सुदी की बुधवार को श्री भुवनाकृति आश्विन पुन मे माहावी मू मण्डपान् हारा गये श्री अजित द्वि प्रणयति । (On the metal image in the temple of Samarandana, Jaipur.)

3. सन १५१६ वर्ष वैशाख सुदी १ बुधवार की बुधवारपूर्विकावे मे रात माहो वसा गये प्रणयति । (Inscription on a Yantra in the temple of Chaulharis, Jaipur.)

4. N.J.L., No. 1120.

5. Anekānta, XII, P. 126.

6. संवत् १५७० वर्ष पौष — एते श्री आदिजिन भगवच्छरण गिर्ये प्रणयति ।

7. सन १५१६ वर्ष वैशाख सुदी २ सोम बुधवार को बुधवार उपदेशकान् पुन माहो मण्डपः गिर्ये प्रणयति ।

8. सन १५३८ वर्ष वैशाख सुदी सुदी आश्विन मे भुवनाकृति उपदेशकान् पुन माहो मण्डपान् हारा गये श्री आदिजिन भगवच्छरण गिर्ये प्रणयति । (In the temple of Lashara, Jaipur.)

9. N.J.L., No. 520.

Kirtistambha was also built. The two Bijaulia inscriptions of 1425 A.D. and 1426 A.D. speak of a *nishadhika* of a Jaina nun named BII Āgamasī and of a *nishadhika* of Hemakīrti, pupil of Subhachandra respectively.¹ With regard to these *nishadhikas*, a wish has been expressed that they may be endured as long as the Sun and Moon last. On the same pillar that bears the second inscription are sculptured the foot prints of some saints or penitents. On one side is engraved the name of Bhadraka Śrī Padmanandideva and on the other of Bhadraka Śrī Subhachandra. At Xivā near Unāra in Jaipur district, there is a *nishadhika* of Subhachandra.

Subhachandra was followed by Jinachandra in about 1452 A.D. Under his inspiration many-sided activities for the propagation of Jainism received an impetus. Copies of several manuscripts such as *Vipākaharita*,² *Pradyumna-charita*,³ and *Varidhaman-charita*⁴ were prepared in his time and probably inspired by him. A number of temples were built and images were placed in them. There is a Chaubīs consecrated by Hemarāja of his line in 1460 A.D.⁵ In 1466 A.D., Sāha Dharmasī with his wife and sons celebrated the consecration ceremony in his time.⁶ The installation ceremony of the metal image of Pārivanātha was also performed through him in 1481 A.D.⁷ Jivātija Pāpaśīlā at his instructions performed the installation ceremony of a large number of images at Mundās in the reign of Rāvala Śhivasītha in 1461 A.D.⁸ The city Mundās seems to be in Gujarat, but from there, these images were sent to the seats of Jainism in different parts of Rajasthan. He enjoyed a long life because Sāha Seḍa with his wife and sons performed the *Yāntra pravāśikā*

1. PRAS. vol., 1164-66, p. 57.

2. PRS, p. 177.

3. Ibid., p. 138.

4. Ibid., p. 170.

5. संवत् १५१० वर्षे वैशाख सुदी १० तारी श्री गुरुवर्ये भद्राचार्य श्री विजयवर्द्धन स्वर्णशालाचार्य साहू गुरुराज नारयण साहूक पुत्र शाला साहू । (Jaina temple of Patodi, Jaipur.)

6. संवत् १५२६ वर्षे वैशाख सुदी ३ शुक्र श्री गुरुवर्ये भद्राचार्य श्री पद्मनन्ददेवा जगद्गुरु श्री विजयवर्द्धन स्वर्णशाला स्वर्ण विजयवर्द्धन जीने साहू स्वर्णशाला स्वर्ण पुत्र शाला स्वर्णशाला जीने, मरचल नित्यं प्रणमति । (Jaina temple Sravaneriya, Jaipur.)

7. संवत् १५२६ वर्षे वैशाख सुदी ३ श्री गुरुवर्ये भद्राचार्य विजयवर्द्धन स्वर्णशालाचार्य साहू श्रीकाश पुत्र काशा 'मार्ग' धर्मशाला स्वर्ण श्री स्वर्णशाला नित्यं प्रणमति ।

8. संवत् १५१८ वर्षे वैशाख सुदी ३ श्री गुरुवर्ये भद्राचार्य श्री विजयवर्द्धन साहू श्रीकाश नारयणसाहू नित्यं प्रणमति राजा एमोसिहू सायक लोहक मुद्राया ।

in 1514 A.D. when Jinachandra was living.¹ There is also a *nishadhikā* of Jinachandra at Ānāvā.

Prabhāchandra came after Jinachandra in about 1515 A.D. By his persuasion, a large number of manuscripts were written for presentation to the monks. His followers got copies of the manuscripts such as *Alakapāñjara*,² *Kaivāḍhāparva*,³ *Śrīpālācharitra*,⁴ *Karakaṇṭhācharitra*,⁵ *Bābubhāṭharitra*⁶ and *Ratnakamudhā*⁷ prepared in 1519 A.D., 1522 A.D., 1524 A.D., 1527 A.D. and 1535 A.D. respectively. In 1518 A.D. Bāli Pārvaṇ got the *Yasodharācharitra* written and presented to him.⁸ Sāha Dadu got the *Yasodharācharitra* written and gave it to Bṛamha Viddā, pupil of Bhagāraka Prabhāchandra.⁹ Images and Yantras were also installed through him in 1515 A.D. Sāha Tīlā of his line performed the Chāraṇayantra *pratikṣhā* in 1516 A.D.¹⁰ In the same year, Rāho with his wife, son and daughter-in-law celebrated the installation ceremony of Saṃyaskhāritrayantra through him.¹¹ His *Nishadhikā* also exists at Ānāvā.

After Prabhāchandra, Dharmachandra became the Bhagāraka in about 1516 A.D. Under his patronage and inspiration, various copies of manuscripts were prepared at different places for presentation to him and his disciples. With a view to propagating Jainism, he proceeded to Nagaur where his devotees got the copies of the *Uttaraparvā mātā*,¹² *Pravachanasūtra-pāṭyāpīṇṇī*,¹³ *Kaṃmaprakarṇī*¹⁴ and *Pārvaṇāṭhācharitra*¹⁵ written in 1520 A.D. in order to present him. In 1526 A.D., a copy of the *Chandraprabhāchandra* was made at Chānu as a result of his discourses.¹⁶ In 1528 A.D., Koshumāl got a copy of the *Shāghṛhāṇī* written for offering him.¹⁷ Sāha Kālā made a copy of the

1. संवत् १५०६ वर्षे ज्येष्ठ सुदी ३ सोमि को पुनर्वसु कु-वकुलवादीनयं न को विनयवर्देन नरायणाय नमस्कारायनये नमोकार सोमि सा भो सा मुनयवे नमः पुन नमः, देवदत्त, जयदत्त, जयमल पुन नमः, मादण संवत् एते प्रणमति ।

2. PS., p. 154.

3. Ibid., p. 98.

4. Ibid., p. 177.

5. Ibid., p. 96.

6. Ibid., p. 147.

7. Ibid., p. 107.

8. Ibid., p. 103.

9. Ibid., p. 104.

10. संवत् १५१६ फाल्गुण सुदी २ को पुनर्वसु अह्मरक को विनयवर्देन नमः अह्मरक को अश्वमेधवर्देन नमोकारायनये नमोकार सोमि सा, टीला प्रणमति ।

11. संवत् १५१६ फाल्गुण सुदी ३ को पुनर्वसु मन्तरकी सुदी अश्वमेधवर्देन नमो अह्मरक को कु-वकुलवादीनयने न विनयवर्देन नमः पुनर्वसु को अश्वमेधवर्देन नमोकार सोमि सा, टीला प्रणमति ।

12. PS., p. 2.

13. Ibid., pp. 36 & 37.

14. Ibid., p. 96.

15. Ibid., p. 131.

16. Ibid., p. 99.

17. Ibid., p. 174.

*Pratishthanakavita*¹ ready in 1531 A.D. to give it to his pupil Kamalakini. In 1534, Sāha Mahārāja prepared the *Pratishthanakavita* for his presentation.²

Besides other copies of manuscripts such as the *Sukumāracharita*³ in 1526 A.D., *Bhadracharitatikā*⁴ in 1532 A.D., *Pratishthanakavita*⁵ in 1536 A.D., *Adiparva*⁶ and *Shatthand*⁷ in 1537 A.D., *Vardhamanavita*⁸ and *Bhadracharita*⁹ in 1538 A.D. and *Chandragudhacharita*¹⁰ in 1546 A.D., were prepared with the object of offering them as gifts to Śāhas. Several Vratra *pratikṣitas* are also known to have been performed in his time. Tālu¹¹ and Valarū¹² of his line performed the consecration ceremony of Saṃyagdharmaṇḍyaṇṭra and Śaślakṣmaṇaṇḍyaṇṭra in 1532 A.D. In 1536 A.D., Sāha Pāsa and Hemā installed the Arham-yatra.¹³

Dharmachandra was followed by Lalitkrīti in about 1546 A.D. A large number of manuscripts were written in his time. In 1553 A.D., Lohara got a copy of the *Yashodhamanavita* written for him.¹⁴ At the invitation of the Śāyikas, he went to Tachasingh where Sāha Tehu and Sāha Pujā got the copies of the *Nāyachandraparvata*¹⁵ and *Yashodhamanavita*¹⁶ prepared in order to offer him as present. Besides other copies of manuscripts such as the *Upashakāśikavita*¹⁷ in 1566 A.D., *Śrīnikacharita*¹⁸ in 1577 A.D., *Pratishthanakavita*¹⁹ in 1574 A.D. and *Sudartacharita*²⁰ in 1575 A.D. were made ready by his followers for presenting them to monks.

Chandrakīrti became Bhagvānka after Lalitkrīti in about 1575 A.D. He seems to have removed his seat from Chitor and established it at Chāra as known from the inscription of 1624 A.D. that he was residing at Chāra.²¹

1. PS., p. 127.

2. Ibid., p. 128.

3. Ibid., p. 200.

4. Ibid., p. 140.

5. Ibid., p. 170.

6. Ibid., p. 88.

7. Ibid., p. 175.

8. Ibid., p. 55.

9. Ibid., p. 148.

10. Ibid., p. 69.

11. अथा १५१६ वर्षे शुद्धे ६ शी सुक्लमे चतुर्थे भाषे प्रजापत्ये नमः शिवाय महात्मने सर्वसर्व प्रजापत्ये नमः देवा भार्गवे सर्वेशे देवा जिते सर्वे योगेदे नमः पुनः सर्वे प्रजापत्ये । (Temple of Loharasingh, Jaipur.)

12. अथा १५१६ वर्षे शुद्धे ६ शुक्लमे १ शुक्लमे श्री सुक्लमे चतुर्थे भाषे प्रजापत्ये नमः शिवाय महात्मने सर्वसर्व प्रजापत्ये नमः देवा भार्गवे सर्वेशे देवा जिते सर्वे योगेदे नमः पुनः सर्वे प्रजापत्ये । (Temple of Loharasingh, Jaipur.)

13. अथा १५१६ वर्षे शुद्धे ६ शी सुक्लमे चतुर्थे भाषे प्रजापत्ये नमः शिवाय महात्मने सर्वसर्व प्रजापत्ये नमः देवा भार्गवे सर्वेशे देवा जिते सर्वे योगेदे नमः पुनः सर्वे प्रजापत्ये । (Temple of Loharasingh, Jaipur.)

14. P. S., p. 163.

15. Ibid., p. 77.

16. Ibid., p. 162.

17. Ibid., p. 64.

18. Ibid., p. 163.

19. Ibid., p. 17.

20. Ibid., p. 190.

21. ARAMA, 1927-28, No. 11.

The reason was that Mewar at this time was unsafe and insecure from the political point of view. On the other hand, Chāṇsa was under Amber rulers who were on friendly relations with Mughal emperors and were patrons of Jainism. This was the time of Akbar who followed the policy of religious toleration. It was, therefore, natural that the activities of Jainism progressed. Some of the copies of manuscripts such as *Pranidhanacharitra* and *Paripam-purāṇa*¹ in 1579 A.D., *Śaichitśakapāṇḍitī*² in 1580 A.D. and *Haravāṇḍapāṇḍitī*³ in 1583 A.D. were prepared by his devotees for offering them to monks of his line.

Besides, Chandrakīrti is known to have performed the installation ceremony of images, Yantras and temples. In 1584 A.D., Sāha Mokḥ,⁴ Sāha Kāṇ,⁵ Sāha Chelā⁶ and Sāha Rāṇā⁷ of his line with the members of their respective families separately made the *pranidhāna* of *Saṃgamaśāntana* Yantra, Rāṇāśāntana Yantra, Karāṇāśāntana Yantra and Dāśakāśāntana Yantra. In 1594 A.D., Thāṇāśāntana went on pilgrimage to Pāvāpurī where he celebrated the installation ceremony of Śāśakāśāntana Yantra at his preaching.⁸ In the same year, Chelāḥ of his line installed the Sanyak chāṇsa Yantra and Saṃgama śāntana Yantra with the members of their family.⁹ In 1604 A.D., Sāha Jāṇ¹⁰ and Sāha

1. PS., p. 125.

2. Ibid., p. 132.

3. Ibid., p. 73.

4. संवत् १६०१ वर्ष कात्तिक मास ३ शुक्लमास श्री गुरुवर्य भट्टराज श्री प्रतापरायण, या चणकचंदन या श्री चणकजीति तत्पत्न्या श्री चणकबायाजी तत्पुत्र मोक्ष या मोक्षा भाषी पुस्तक पुत्र गुरुवर्य चणकचंदन विनिर्गम्य प्रणमति :

5. संवत् १६०१ वर्ष फाल्गुन मासी २ शुक्ल श्री गुरुवर्य चणकबायाजी प्रतापराज तत्पुत्र चणकबायाजी श्री चणकचंदन तत्पत्न्या श्री चणकजीति तत्पत्न्या श्री चणकबायाजी तत्पुत्र मोक्ष या मोक्षा भाषी पुस्तक पुत्र गुरुवर्य चणकचंदन विनिर्गम्य प्रणमति :

6. संवत् १६०१ वर्ष फाल्गुन मासी २ शुक्ल श्री गुरुवर्य या श्री चणकजीति तत्पत्न्या श्री चणकबायाजी तत्पुत्र मोक्ष या मोक्षा भाषी पुस्तक पुत्र गुरुवर्य चणकचंदन विनिर्गम्य प्रणमति :

7. संवत् १६०१ वर्ष फाल्गुन मासी ३ शुक्ल श्री गुरुवर्य या श्री चणकजीति तत्पत्न्या श्री चणकबायाजी तत्पुत्र मोक्ष या मोक्षा भाषी पुस्तक पुत्र गुरुवर्य चणकचंदन विनिर्गम्य प्रणमति :

8. संवत् १६०४ वैशाख मास पावसासु मास श्री राजा भागीरथ श्री गुरुवर्य या श्री चणकजीति गुरुवर्य चणकचंदन तत्पत्न्या श्री चणकबायाजी तत्पुत्र मोक्ष या मोक्षा भाषी पुस्तक पुत्र गुरुवर्य चणकचंदन विनिर्गम्य प्रणमति :

9. संवत् १६०४ वैशाख मासी ३ श्री गुरुवर्य या श्री चणकजीति तत्पत्न्या श्री चणकबायाजी तत्पुत्र मोक्ष या मोक्षा भाषी पुस्तक पुत्र गुरुवर्य चणकचंदन विनिर्गम्य प्रणमति :

10. संवत् १६०१ वर्ष माघ मासी १० तद्विषये गुरुवर्य चणकजीति तत्पत्न्या श्री चणकबायाजी तत्पुत्र मोक्ष या मोक्षा भाषी पुस्तक पुत्र गुरुवर्य चणकचंदन विनिर्गम्य प्रणमति :

Jaiṅgī¹ performed the consecration ceremony of the metal image and Śloṇākāśkṛāṇayāntṛa through him separately. Bhoṭaka of Ajmer with his sons and grandsons set up Chaubīsī through him in 1601 A.D.² In 1624 A.D., Arṇāśha of his line made the *prasthāpā* of Āṇikāś Yāntṛa.³ An inscription of 1624 A.D. states that the pillar of the Jains temple was erected by him when he was residing at Champāvarī (Chāṇsu).⁴

Chandrakīrti was succeeded by Devendrakīrti in about 1626 A.D. Some copies of the manuscripts were written by his inspiration. In 1607 A.D., he went to Sangner where Kuṭhāga gave a copy of the *Hārīśaṅkīśpūṭ*⁵ to him in present. Nānu and his wife Nihāde got a copy of the *Līpīpūṭ* written in the temple of Āṇikāśha at Toderāśingh and presented to him in 1617 A.D.⁶ A copy of the *Nemināthāśpūṭ* was prepared in 1617 A.D.⁷ In 1620 A.D., when he went to Chāṇsu, Sāṇa Dēṭai offered him a welcome by presenting a manuscript of the *Sudurśanāśharītra*.⁸

Narendrakīrti came after Devendrakīrti in about 1634 A.D. He is known to have performed the installation ceremony of images and Yāntṛas. An inscription of 1639 A.D. engraved on the lower portion of a large pillar records that it was erected in the temple of Nemināthā at Chāṇsu by Bhadrāśha Narendrakīrti.⁹ He went on pilgrimage to holy places such as Gīrāṇ and Hastīśpura from time to time with the Saṅgha. In 1652 A.D., Saṅghī Tejās and Uḍākarāga of Nevaḷ led the Saṅgha to Gīrāṇ where the *Yāntṛa-prasthāpā* was performed by Narendrakīrti.¹⁰ Saṅghī Sunidhu and Saṅghī Nāḷhī together celebrated the installation ceremony of Daśāśakāśha Yāntṛa at his hands in 1653 A.D.¹¹ In 1654 A.D., Jagatnāṇḍa in the company of the *Chāṇsuśāṅkīśpūṭ*

1. वर्षक १६१३ ई. में कर्त मूर्ती गन्ध्याम मरी ग्हाण्ड श्री कन्दकीर्तिदा अमेरा पावे गह गुण मिले प्रथमति ।

2. वर्षक १६०८ आषाढ सुदी १० राखवति - म. श्री कन्दकीर्तिदा तारावाम अर्चनकारावाम दीर्घी योग अवमेर कारवाम सा दीर्घक मण्डप मर सा मेवा, ही ग्हाण्ड, मु. सा. मर सा मेवा पुन दीर्घक मण्डप पुन मण्डप सा. मेवा, जीवा, सा दीर्घक मिले प्रथमति ।

3. वर्षक १६२३ ई. में आषाढ सुदी २ श्री कन्दकीर्ति मण्डपमरी श्री कन्दकीर्ति तारावाम अर्चनकारावाम मेवा पावे मर मण्डप मण्डपमरी मिले प्रथमति ।

4. AIRMA, 1927-28, p. 11.

5. PS, p. 78.

6. Ibid., p. 80.

7. Ibid., p. 28.

8. Ibid., pp. 180-90.

9. AIRMA., 1927-28, No. 12.

10. वर्षक १६०८ आषाढ सुदी १ श्री कन्दकीर्ति मण्डपमरी श्री कन्दकीर्ति तारावाम अर्चनकारावाम मेवा पावे मर मण्डप मण्डपमरी मिले प्रथमति ।

11. See above, p. 48.

went to Hastināpura where he installed the Saṃyak Yantra.¹ In 1659 A.D. Jagannātha also celebrated the installation ceremony of Rikāka Yantra through him.² At the same time, his devotee Khemāsīha of Amber had a pilgrimage to Hastināpura where the installation ceremony of the Rikāka Yantra was performed by him.³

Surendrakīrti became the Paṭallaṅga of Narendrakīrti in about 1661 A.D. In 1672 A.D., he proceeded to Sammedāśikhara where his followers named Saṃghaṣṭi Nandharidīsa and Saṃghaṭi Purāṇanda celebrated the installation ceremony of Dāśakāśhanayantṛa as a result of his preaching.⁴ In 1678 A.D., Nandharidīsa and Kūṭhāṇanda of Amber and Chāṣṭīṇa with his wife and sons celebrated the consecration ceremony of Pūrāvanītha Yantṛa through him.⁵

Surendrakīrti was succeeded by Jagadkīrti in about 1676 A.D. This was a terrible time and the persecutions of Aurangzeb were going on. The old temples were pulled down and the construction of the new ones was not allowed. In spite of this, the activities for the propagation of Jainism continued because some ruling chiefs of Rajasthan were on friendly terms with Aurangzeb. Some copies of the manuscripts such as *Upadeśasāraṇaśikā*⁶ in 1688 A.D., *Padmapāṇḍita*⁷ in 1694 A.D. and *Śhaṣṭhīkṛpāśikā*⁸ in 1708 A.D. were prepared by his followers in order to present them to Brahmachārī Nāthurāma, Aśhārya Subhachandra and Dāśarājī, pupils of Jagadkīrti. He also celebrated the consecration ceremony of images and Yantṛas. In 1684 A.D., Saṃghaṭi Saṃapāla

1. संवत् २७११ वर्षे चैत्र शुद्ध २ तमि श्री पुनर्वसु नक्षत्रेण... भद्राक्ष श्री सुरेंद्रचरित नवग्रन्थस्य अष्टाध्याय्यस्य तमं योगं स भद्राक्ष कल्पु मन्त्राधिकारि जगन्निवेन अष्टाध्याय्य अनुविमर्शय सप्त हस्तः योगपुरे योगागत्य प्रतिष्ठापितः । अतस्मिन् निम्नं प्रणमति ।

2. संवत् १७११ वर्षे चैत्र शुद्ध २ तमि श्री पुनर्वसु — श्री १७२ नक्षत्रेण नवग्रन्थस्य अष्टाध्याय्यस्य मर्मयोग संवत्स पुनं मन्त्राधिकारि जगन्निवेन अष्टाध्याय्य प्रतिष्ठापितः कारयितः ।

3. संवत् १७१६ वर्षे चैत्र शुद्ध २ तमि श्री पुनर्वसु — भद्राक्ष श्री सुरेंद्रचरित नवग्रन्थस्य अष्टाध्याय्यस्य तमं योगं स भद्राक्ष कल्पु मन्त्राधिकारि जगन्निवेन अष्टाध्याय्य अनुविमर्शय सप्त हस्तः योगपुरे योगागत्य प्रतिष्ठापितः — अतस्मिन् निम्नं प्रणमति ।

4. संवत् १७७२ फाल्गुन शुद्ध २ तमि पुनर्वसु नक्षत्रेण भद्राक्षचरित नवग्रन्थस्य अष्टाध्याय्यस्य तमं योगं स भद्राक्ष कल्पु मन्त्राधिकारि जगन्निवेन अष्टाध्याय्य प्रतिष्ठापितः कारयितः ।

5. संवत् १७७३ वर्षे चैत्र शुद्ध २ श्री पुनर्वसु भद्राक्ष श्री सुरेंद्रचरित नवग्रन्थस्य अष्टाध्याय्यस्य तमं योगं स भद्राक्ष कल्पु मन्त्राधिकारि जगन्निवेन अष्टाध्याय्य प्रतिष्ठापितः कारयितः ।

6. *Id.* p. 4.

7. *Ibid.* 29.

8. *Ibid.* p. 174.

made the Yantra *prasthāna* at Kalavata through him.¹ The consecration ceremony of a large number of images was organized by his devotee Saṅghī Kṛṣṇadāsa at Chāndalkeḍī in 1665 A.D.² In 1709 A.D., Dayākulāsa of his line set up the metal image of Pārśvanātha.³

The next Bhadrāsaka after Jagadkīrti was Devendrakīrti II. Under his patronage, manuscripts were written and the consecration of the images took place. Dharmāsī wrote a copy of the *Sarvaśāntakāraṇī* in 1723 A.D. at Amber for the study of Paṇḍita Kṛṣṇadāsa, pupil of Devendrakīrti.⁴ In 1723 A.D., a specimen of *Harivamśapurāṇa* was prepared by his followers for the presentation.⁵ Chhībhāḍa and Suganāda performed the installation ceremony of images at Dholera through him in 1716 A.D.⁶ In 1726 A.D. the consecration ceremony of images was organized at Manakholā by his devotee Hridayarāma.⁷

The successor of Devendrakīrti II was Mahendrakīrti who became Pundit in 1735 A.D. He came from Sanganeer and established his seat at Amber. It is for this reason Āmer Pura started from him. It is further confirmed by a *prasthāna*.⁸ Copies of the *Jambhvatī-charita*,⁹ in 1736 A.D. and *Tripitakānupāṇa*¹⁰ in 1741 A.D. were prepared by his devotees.

Mahendrakīrti was succeeded by Kāhemendrakīrti in about 1758 A.D. After him, Surendrakīrti became the papādharī in 1765 A.D. In 1769 A.D., Saṅghī Nandakāśa performed the installation ceremony of images on a large scale at Sawaimadhopura as a result of his preaching.¹¹ Vadhvārāma prepared a copy of the *Manuśānta-prasthāna*¹² in order to offer him as a gift. Sukhendrakīrti became his successor in 1795 A.D. His followers made the specimen of *Śārngachandī*¹³ ready for presentation in 1816 A.D. He participated in the

1. संवत् १७४१ कार्तिक सुदी १७, कच्छर नगर श्री गुरुनारायण भट्टाचार्य श्री जगदकीर्ति महाशयने श्रीदेव वाताश्रये संघर्षी शोधयामेन प्रतिष्ठा करागिता ।

2. See above, p. 30.

3. संवत् १७०९, माघ सुदी २ श्री गुरुनारायण भट्टाचार्य श्रीदेव वाताश्रये संघर्षी श्री देववासाय प्रतिष्ठा करागिता ।

4. Ps., p. 7.

5. Ibid., p. 77.

6. संवत् १७१६ चैत्रमास माघ सुदी पक्षे सुदीया तिथी श्री गुरुनारायण भट्टाचार्य श्री देववासाय प्रतिष्ठा करागिता । (Temple of Chāndalkeḍī, Jaipur.)

7. संवत् १७८२ वैशाख कृती ८ शुभ वराचौह नगरे भट्टाचार्य श्री देवेन्द्रकीर्ति महाशयने श्रीसङ्घा नारायण संघर्षी श्री हृदयरामेन प्रतिष्ठा करागिता । श्रीस जयदेवने निर्दिष्ट प्रणमति ।

8. PS., pp. 48 and 50.

9. Ibid., p. 214.

10. Ibid., p. 219.

11. See above, p. 47.

12. PS., p. 48.

13. Ibid., p. 56.

Saigāha led by Saigāhī Rāyachandra to Junagadh where an installation ceremony of some Yantra was performed by Rāyachandra through him.¹ In 1824 A.D., the same person celebrated the consecration ceremony of images at Jaipur as a result of his preaching.² After him, Narendrakirti II, Devendrakirti and Mahendrakirti became the Bhagārakas one after another in succession.

BHATTĀKAS OF NAGOUR PATA: Jinachandra had two pupils named Prabhāchandra and Ramakirti. During his life time, there arose a disagreement and his second disciple Ramakirti established his separate seat at Nagaur. He died at Ajmer which is shown by an inscription of 1333 A.D. in the *Chatur* of Bhagāraka Ramakirti.³ After him, Bhuvanakirti became the Papadhara who was followed by Dharmakirti in about 1335 A.D. In 1342 A.D., a copy of the *Dharmaparikṣā*⁴ was prepared by this devotee. After him, Vīṭlakirti became the Pontiff in about 1344 A.D. He was followed by Lakṣmīchandra. In 1379 A.D., Lunā of his line got a copy of the *Dharmachakre*⁵ written in order to offer it to the nun Hāravālī in present. Later on, Sahasrakirti, Nemichandra and Yaśakirti became Bhagārakas one after another in succession.

Yaśakirti was the Bhagāraka of some importance. Under his inspiration, manuscripts were prepared and images were installed. An inscription engraved in the Jaina temple of Vādinūtha at Revāḍ of 1603 A.D. records that it was constructed by Nāha, Hanala and his brother Nathamala, the two sons of Deviddasa the chief minister of Rāyavāla at the preaching of Bhagāraka Yaśakirti.⁶ His followers Ropā and his son Durgarasi of Jalorest made the specimen of *Dharmaparikṣā*⁷ ready for presenting it to Guṇachandra in 1609 A.D. The *Vipāka* of Revāḍ presented a throne to him in 1613 A.D.⁸ He was followed by Bhānukirti and Bhushanakirti. Bhānukirti had two pupils namely Dharmachandra and Ramakirti. Again a trouble arose between them, and Ramakirti established his separate Pata at Ajmer. After Dharmachandra, Devendrakirti, Amerendrakirti and Ramakirti became the Bhagārakas one after another in succession of Nagaur Pata.

1. See above p. 37.

2. See above p. 37.

3. सन १३३३ का प्रमाण अर्थात् ३ अक्टूबर इस्लामवी की खलफ़ेविही की हकी ।

4. PS., p. 21. 5. Ibid., p. 108. 6. ARIMA, 1034-35, Non. 7. PS., p. 30.

8. अर्थात् इस्लामवी की १००३ की खलफ़ेविही काय खलफ़ा का की सदा विद्वान् जयल मेवादी देवता मगदे.सं. १६७६ का मिलि प्रमाण सुवी ९ ।

Chhatris over the remains of Bhagīraka Bhuvanashīri in 1815 A.D. There is also the Chhatra of Bhagīraka Padmanand with the inscription of 1871 A.D.

Besides, a large number of Chaturarṇis and Chhatris built over the remains of the Āchāryas and the Paṇḍitas are found at Ajmer. There is an inscription of 1723 A.D. on the Chaturarṇi built over the remains of Viśālākṣmi, Āchārya Bhadrakā. Śrī Vijayakṛti constructed the Chaturarṇi and four pratis of Āchārya Śrī Bhadrakṛti in 1744 A.D. at Ajmer wherein he actually passed away at Danti in Sakadvāri. Paṇḍita Basantārjuna constructed the Chaturarṇi of the Āchārya Ramanāshana in 1756 A.D. The Chaturarṇi of Āchārya Devendrakṛti was built by Ganeshnāth in 1757 A.D. Paṇḍita Basantārjuna also constructed the Chaturarṇi over the remains of Tilakabhadra in 1764 A.D.

Pt. Talashīlā constructed the Chhatra over the remains of Pt. Harinarā, a disciple of Āchārya Rājakṛti. In 1784 A.D., the *prabha* of Pt. Valsarjuna was erected. In 1766 A.D., Pt. Dashārjuna constructed the *prabha* of his teacher Rāmāchandra who was a pupil of Harinarā. In 1760 A.D., Pt. Sayārjuna constructed the Chaturarṇi of Pt. Rūpachandra, Pt. Mahāchandra and Pt. Ashārjuna. The *prabha* of Pt. Vināśchandra was erected in 1793 A.D. The Chaturarṇi of Pt. Pannālā was built in 1844 A.D. Pt. Pannālā was a disciple of Bhagīraka Bhuvanashīri who repaired the shrine of his master in 1818 A.D.

It is thus clear that several Bhagīrakas, Āchāryas and Paṇḍitas lived and played an important part in the history of medieval Jain society when there was anarchy. At this time, the Muslims were carrying on persecutions and destruction, and the Marāṭhas were raiding the different parts of the country. The life and property of the people became unsafe and insecure. Even at this time, Bhagīrakas wandered from place to place without any anxiety and fear for the propagation of Jainism.

Bhagīrakas rendered valuable services to Jainism in medieval times. Some of the Bhagīrakas like Sakāshīri and Subhāchandra were great scholars who wrote their literary works in Sanskrit, Pāli, Apabhraṃśa, Hindi, Gujarātī and Rājasthānī languages. The preservation of manuscripts was the most valuable work done by them at this time. Several copies of the works on grammar, medicine, mathematics and similar subjects were prepared. They also contributed towards art and architecture. Installation of various images was considered to be their main work. As their Maṭhas were cultural

centres, they patronised music, painting, sculpture, dancing and other arts. In social sphere also, their services are remarkable. They often arranged long pilgrimages with a large number of followers. They sometimes looked after the management of the holy places, for instance, Śrī Mahāvīra's was managed by the Bhagīrākas of Jaipur. Some of them possessed miraculous powers gained through *mantra*. To walk through fire, to remove the effect of poison and to make stone image speak are some of the miracles ascribed to them. They used to visit the courts of Hindu and Muslim rulers and induced them to observe the doctrine of *ahimsā* by the prohibition of the slaughter of animals in their kingdom on certain fixed days of the year.

CHAITYAVĀSĪ SYSTEM IN RAJASTHAN

The system of the Chaityavāsī functioned in Rajasthan with great success and advantage. A Jain monk according to the rule prescribed for him does not usually stay longer than one night in a village or five nights in a town. This practice is found in Jainism as well as in Buddhism; and it is an inheritance of Śramaṇa culture. At the same time, there came gradually a good deal of luxury in the conduct of the saints.

Āchārya Dharmasāgara in his *pariśiṣṭī* writes that in 333 A.D., this practice of Chaityavāsī started.¹ But according to Muni Kalyāṇ Vījaya, it had originated even earlier and in 333 A.D., it had become well established practice.² At present, the Yatis or Śrāpukas in the Svetāmbaras and the Bhagīrākas in the Digambaras are known as *Akṣhaṇḍī*. All are collectively known as Chaityavāsī.

The Chaityavāsī system seems to have developed in Rajasthan from about the 8th century A.D. The Jain Āchāryas of Rajasthan such as Haribhadrasūri³ and Jinavallabhasūri⁴ had drawn the attention of the people towards the luxury in the ways of the monks. They resided in temples and used their wealth for their personal gain. They put on even coloured or⁵ seemed clothes. They ate food or sweets fetched by the monks. They used to hoard money and relish delicious dishes. They used *śodhita* water as well as fruits and flowers. They sold idols and purchased children in order to make them their disciples.

1. JS II, p. 361. 2. Ibid. 3. *Sandakṣapandharipa*, Verses 27, 31, 40-49, 61, 63, 68 etc.

4. *Saṅghapattāṇa*, Verses 7, 11, 12, 16, 21 etc.

Silagurusuri, the teacher of King Vanaraja Chāyavādi (703-821 A.D.) asked him to issue orders forbidding the stay of other saints except Chaityavāsī saints in the city of Aṇahavāḍa. In order to violate it, in 937 A.D. Jñāneśvarasuri and Buddhisāgarasuri defeated the Chaityavāsīs in the debate in the royal court of Darśabhastya and thus sought permission for the admission of the Vīdhi-mārga in Pāraj.

That Chaityavāsīs had deviated considerably from the traditional ways of Jaina Śādhūs is evident from several Jaina temples and idols installed by them. This was the practice of the laity and not of the Śādhūs. But the Chaityavāsīs saw no harm in these deviations and argued that what was meritorious for the laity was equally creditable for the Śādhūs. There are inscriptions which give us information about the practice of the Chaityavāsīs in Rajasthan. In 1331 A.D. Rāmachandrasuri of Jirāpalli Gachchha for self-merit constructed the *śouchalikā* at Jirāpalli in Sirohi State.¹ Hematīkhasuri for the merit of his teacher constructed the *vaṅgamandapa* of the temple at the village Vamān in Sirohi State in 1389 A.D.² In 1397 A.D. Vāchaka Somaprabhasuri of Pichpalāchūrya Gachchha constructed an image of Sumatinūtha at Aṭṭi which was consecrated by Vīraprabhasuri.³ Vīraprabhasuri constructed the *mandapa* in 1418 A.D. at the village Vīravāḍī.⁴ In 1264 A.D. Vijayaprabhasuri of Kāchchhachūvāla Gachchha built the *śouchalikā* in the temple of Ajitanūtha for the merit of Gunasāgarasuri at Sirohi.⁵ Bhadrēśvarasuri for the merit of Tilaka Suri made *śouchalikā* of Adinūtha at Jirāpalli.⁶ Udayarāma of Kāchchhachūvāla Gachchha built *śouchalikā* at Sirohi.⁷ Pāśvadevasuri of Nāgaka Gachchha with his disciple Vīrachandā constructed *lapidā* at the village Velān.⁸ Numa Suri of Prāmīkadhūra Prastūyā Gachchha erected the image of Adideva in the building at Vasantagadh.⁹

In the Dīgambara Jaina literature, there is no definite and clear mention of the time when the system of Chaityavāsīs started. But that it was in existence in the 8th century A.D. in the south is known from several inscriptions. In Rajasthan, the Bhājīrakas were also in possession of villages and gardens. They renovated temples, constructed inns and gave food to other monks. It seems that, in spite of their being Chaityavāsīs, the earlier

1. APJLS., No. 119.

2. Ibid., No. 113.

3. APJLS., No. 432.

4. Ibid., No. 278.

5. Ibid., No. 240-248.

6. Ibid., No. 116.

7. Ibid., No. 240.

8. Ibid., No. 337.

9. Ibid., No. 445.

Bhagārakas remained naked, and this was probably necessary in order to show their separation from the saints of the Svetāmbaras. At present, there is a tendency in the Bhagārakas to put off their clothes while eating food but wear them in all other times. It shows that they remained naked in the past and the practice of wearing clothes started afterwards. In the 16th century A.D. Bhagtesha Srivastava writes that in Kalikāla, Muslims seeing the Yatis naked began to do mischief and ill-treat them. Therefore, in Mandapadunga, Banantakīrti gave instructions that the saints at the time of *śrāva* (begging food and going out) should cover their body with mat and other things.¹ In the *poṭṭāvatī* of Abhinavagūṇa, there are names of the Bhagārakas of Chimer.² One of them was Basantakīrti who lived in about 1227 A.D. At that time, there was the great fear of the Muslims. From the 13th century onwards, the Digambaras saints while going out began to use mat and other things in order to cover nakedness.

In the domain of religion, the Bhagārakas were the spiritual heads having several *śāhāryas* and *Paṇḍitas* under their control. They enjoyed donations and received money in various ways from the Śāhāras. They possessed administrative powers and used to appoint the *śāhāryas* and the *Paṇḍitas* at different places in order to carry on the religious affairs.

MINOR PROTESTANT AND NON-PROTESTANT SECTS

The effect of the Muslim invasions of the Jain religion is seen in two ways. It brought different Jain sects closer together for self defence against the iconoclasts. At the same time, it drove others away from brotherly altogether. It, therefore, naturally divided both Digambaras and Svetāmbaras each into two divisions known as idol-worshippers and non-idol-worshippers. The sect of non-idol-worshippers reminds one of the early Hindu traditions of Vedānta and Nāgava Bhakti movement of Kabīr and Nānak. With the impact of the Muslim culture, some sects of Jains began to denounce idol worship with great vehemence. The following sects are the opponents of the idol worship in Rajasthan.

(1) **Loṭhā Śūvī:** In Ahmedabad, Loṭhā caused his livelihood by copying books in the Upiśāl of a Yati called Jāmāl. While writing these books, he was struck with the fact that idol worship was not mentioned

1. JSAL, p. 367.

2. I.A., XX, p. 347.

in them. He pointed it out to Jñānā and others, and a sharp controversy arose between them as to the desirability of idolatry. At last in 1451 A.D., he organised a new sect of his own called Lokhā Sect after his own name. He prohibited the installation of images and declared his disbelief in such essential rites as *Pratiksha*, *Pratishthana*, *Prayachhita* and even in charity. He did not like the rites in which even the slightest touch of violence or injury was involved. The Muslims at this time were destroying the temples and the images. This gave him the opportunity to spread his doctrine well. Great slackness had also come in the mendicants, because they possessed not only the books and clothes but even wealth. There were mutual quarrels among them. For this type of behaviour, the people began to criticise them. He took advantage of all these circumstances in propagating his doctrines by going from place to place.

Lokhā pronounced 31 *Sūtras* as the foundation of his sect and gave a new interpretation of such *Sūtras* as seemed to support image worship. He made such drastic changes in the *Āśvadhakṛm* that they altogether assumed a new form. In 1476 A.D., he met a man named Bhāga, a native of Aṅgahāṇa pāṇaka near Simhā who took *śikṣā* without being initiated by any teacher. This monk assumed the false name of Dhyaṇīlaka. In 1481 A.D., he secured a disciple called Rūpakāṇi and the old Vārā Śūkha became his disciples in 1541 A.D. and 1558 A.D. respectively. Thus, though Lokhāśāha himself was not initiated, others were initiated by him and became saints.

(b) **STHĀNAKAVASĪ SĒT:** Some of the members of the Lokhā Sect disapproved of the lines of their *Sādhus* declaring that they lived less strictly than Mahāvīra would have wished. A Lokhā layman Vināṇi of Sūrat received initiation as a *Sādhvi* and won great admiration through the strictness of his life. Many from the Lokhā Sect joined this reformer, and they took the name of Sthānakavāsīs while their enemies called them Dhyaṇīyā. The followers of this sect are found in all the important cities of Rajasthan.

(c) **TERĀPANTHĪ SĒT:** The founder of Terāpantḥī Sect was Bhikamāṇi. After a critical study of the scriptures, he came to know that the Jaina *Sādhus* were not leading their lives according to *Sūtras* injunctions and were not promulgating the true principles of Jainism. The Sthānakavāsīs stayed in the places specially set apart for *Sādhus* to live in. He began to stay even in the places meant for laymen. Once, a strange coincidence took place.

Some *Śākhās* and laymen both numbering thirteen were staying in a shop. This led a poet of the Śeṣaya class to compose a short parody ridiculing the sect and nicknaming it Terīpantī (the path of thirteen). Bhaṅkrajī gave a very appropriate interpretation to it. He said the number indicated five great vows (*Ahimsā*), five rules of conduct (*Saṁitī*), and control of body, mind and speech (three *Gāptis*).

Terīpantīs do not worship idols. They think that worship of idols does not lead to salvation. They meditate upon and mentally worship those highly developed souls who have attained liberation. They worship and revere those living beings who have renounced the world absolutely and lead the life of asceticism strictly observing the five great vows. The followers of this sect are mostly found in Bikaner and Jodhpur States.

Like the Svetāmbaras, the Digambaras were also divided into the sects of idol-worshippers and non-idol-worshippers. In course of time, the sect of idol-worshippers was further split into several sub-sects.

(a) **TARAPANTHĪ SECT:** Tārapantī Sekt is the sect of non-idol worshippers among the Digambaras Jains. It was founded by Tīrṅga Svāmī who was born in 1448 A.D. and died in 1515 A.D. Like Lokīh, Tīrṅga Svāmī also denounced idol worship. His followers do not worship idols, but they do worship the fourteen scriptures written by him. In this respect, they remind us of the Sikhs who worship the *Granthasthān*.

(b) **TUMARANTHĪ SECT:** The idolatrous sect of Terīpantīs was founded by Pt. Amara Chanda Baghāyā, a resident of Sanganer. It became rapidly popular in Rajasthan in the 17th century. Originally, it was known as Vīkīnāṅga but its opponents nicknamed it as Terīpantī just to ridicule it. The Terīpantīs protested against the elaborate ritualism of the Bhagīrathas. During the life time of Rāmānandīhā, the great scholar and saint of Agra, this sect gained great popularity. It is defined by some as a sect which emphasises the thirteen points of self discipline for building up the character; others, however, believe that the name was given by its opponents to ridicule it.¹ The Digambara Terīpantīs are held in esteem by the Bhagīrathas like the Svetāmbara Terīpantīs by the Sītanīyas. Bābhara Rām in the *Śaśāṅkī* says that this sect differs from the original faith in thirteen points; and hence, it is called Terīpantī. The Terīpantīs do not recognise the superior

1. JSAL, p. 367.

position of the Bhagvākas. The Terāpanthīs of the Śvētāmbaras and the Digambaras differ from each other. The former do not worship the images while the later do. The Digambara Terāpanthīs worship the images but not with the flowers, fruits, sandal and *prabhāka*. The worship, in this way according to them, involves *himsa* and therefore militates against the fundamental principles of Jainism.

(c) GUMĀNAPANTHĪ SECT: Gumānapanthī Sect flourished in the 15th century A.D. and was so called after the name of its founder Gumānirāma, the son of Pt. Todarāmal of Jaipur. It was also known as *Siddhāntant*, because particular emphasis was laid on the purity of conduct of its followers by imposing certain rules of discipline on them. This sect spread in several parts of Rajasthan outside Jaipur such as Māroḥa, Bhālavā etc.

(d) BĪSAPANTHĪ SECT: The Bīsapanthīs are the followers of the Bhagvākas. They assumed this name because they thought that they were superior to Terāpanthīs. This sect permits idol worship and supports the cult and methods of the Bhagvākas. In this sect, the idols are worshipped with water, lamp, flowers and sandal. The followers of this sect are found in Jaipur, Ajmer, Nagaur and Māroḥa.

(e) TERTIAPANTHĪ SECT: In course of time, an attempt was made for the compromise between Bīsapanthīs and Terāpanthīs. A new sect known as Tertiāpanthī came into existence. This sect partly consists of Bīsapanthī Sect and partly Terāpanthī Sect. It is, therefore, also known as *Sāyā Sāyā Pāthī* Sect. It remained confined only to Nagaur.

These idol-worshipping sects do not materially differ from each other in the Digambaras. Their founders namely Amara Chandra Baḍājāryā and Gumānī Rāma were anxious to maintain the individuality of their sects; and hence, the nominal differences were emphasized.

CASTES AND GOTRAS IN JAINISM

Most of the Castes and their Gotras found among the Jains in the north have their origin in Rajasthan. The time and the manner of their origin is shrouded in considerable mystery. There are many legendary accounts of their origin which tell us that they are of great antiquity. But, as a matter of fact, no names of these Castes and their Gotras before the seventh century are traceable. From the historical point of view, these Castes and their Gotras

seem to have some inter-existence between the eighth and the thirteenth century A.D., the time of golden age for Jainism in Rajasthan. There were born great influential saints like Hemachandra and Jnanchandra who converted the Rajputs Bhojmanas and Vaisyas to Jainism. Even the Jain statesmen like Vinola and Vastupala tried to spread Jainism by rendering meritorious services. The merchants also spent countless wealth for its propagation by constructing beautiful temples and placing images in them. In this way, Jainism was accepted by a large number of masses who formed different Castes.

(1) **OSAYĀLAS:** Osayālas are found in all the important cities of Rajasthan. They occupy a prominent position both in administrative and commercial spheres. Their origin is from the place named Osa in Marwar. This town was visited by Uppaladeva, the Seion of the ruling family of Śānśila who being pressed by his enemy sought refuge at the hands of a ruler of the Pratihāra dynasty which was then supreme in Marwar. At this time, the Jain sahit Ramaprabhasuri came to this place and found the only son of Uppaladeva bitten by a snake. The king requested Ramaprabha to cure him which he did. The king with his subjects embraced Jainism and Ramaprabhasuri formed the Osayāla Caste of these people. There are three views about the time of this incident.

1. According to the *Nāthīsamantaditya-prabandha* and the *Upahāsa-pāśānashanīra*, Ramaprabhasuri, the seventh *patijadhara* in the line of Pīśevanātha, established the Osayāla in Vira Nirvāna Samvat 70 (457 A.D.)
2. In the opinion of the Bhāṣas, the caste of the Osayālas with their eighteen Gotras was established by the teachings of Ramaprabhasuri at Uppaladevapura in Marwar in 112 V.E. (65 A.D.) - 4. But both these views do not seem to be correct, because there is no mention and trace of this caste before the 8th century A.D. It seems to have come into existence afterwards. The king Uppaladeva and his subjects were converted to Jainism by Ramaprabhasuri who formed their caste of Osayālas.

Gotras of the Osayālas: After the conversion, Osayālas continued to multiply and they formed eighteen Gotras according to the traditions. But the process of the multiplication continued further particularly because they ceased to be a fighting race and there was no mass casualty due to any battle. It is believed that there are 144 Gotras of the Osayālas. But these are not the main Gotras. They just represent simply

the branches and sub-branches. Yati Sūpti refers to the manuscript which mentions *ney Gomas*.¹ The poet Rupachandra of the eighteenth century A.D. in his *Chandohita* mentions about 44 Gomas.² Some are territorial, some are individualistic, and others are occupational.

(a) TERRITORIAL GOMAS: Some Gomas were named after the places of their origin. Jinadamasuri gave *śikṣāśloka* to the two princes namely Śūdhara and Rājadhara of Rāṣṭra Sīgara at Bhagasāla in Jaisalmer. The Princes and after them their descendants and still further those who were closely or remotely related to them, all came to be called Bhagasālis. And thus was established the Bhagasāli Goma.³ In 1342 A.D., Sīha Viśala of this Goma celebrated the consecration of Chandraprabhā through Jinabhadra Sena at Jaisalmer.⁴ So the Goma must have started not later than 1340 A.D. The Kāchchhōli Goma was formed after the village named Kāchchhōla in Sindh State probably at the beginning of the 13th century A.D. In 1386 A.D., Ajaya-sūda of this Goma installed the image of Pūrīyāmāha at Kāchchhōli for acquiring merit for his parents.⁵ Koraṇja Goma originated from the place named Koraṇja in Marwar. In 1450 A.D., Sīha Viśala of this Goma for acquiring merit for himself celebrated the consecration ceremony of the image of Sumanaśūha through Kalkasūri of this Gachchha.⁶ Some Oasvālas of Pegala settled at another place, and they began to be called by the name Pegala. Medharavila Goma came into existence after the city of Merā in the former Jodhpur State. The inscriptions of the 16th century of this Goma are available at Merā and Udaipur.⁷ The Oasvālas who came from Kanauj, were grouped under Kanaujī Goma. In 1462 A.D., Sīhagajha of this Goma for the merit of his father consecrated the Śivalamūha *śikṣā* through Devyagupta Sena.⁸ Kūṅkrī Goma originated from Bhimast who lived in the village Kūṅkarāvata.⁹ He was the Sāmānt of Malārāpī of Udaipur and was converted to Jainism by Jinavallabhasuri of the Kharanara Gachchha. There is a mention of this Goma in the inscription of 1441 A.D. found at Adwar.¹⁰ It is clear that these Gomas started mostly between the 13th and the 15th centuries A.D.

(b) OCCUPATIONAL GOMAS: Some Gomas originated from the occupations of certain Jainas. Rāphā Rāva Chupḍā gave his treasury to

1. *Jaina Sampradāya Śikṣā*, p. 356.

2. *Jaina Bhārat*, Vol. XI, No. 11.

3. N.J.L. III, p. 28.

4. Ibid., No. 2329.

5. APJLS, No. 611.

6. N.J.L., No. 2325.

7. N.J.L., Nos. 1131 and 1390.

8.

N.J.L., No. 1101.

9. H.O., p. 353.

10. N.J.L., No. 288.

Thākars. It is therefore the descendants of Thākars who began to be called Kothārī. From the inscription of 1296 A.D., it is clear that Jēgās of this Gotra celebrated *Vīṣṭapūjā* through Vinayaprabhāsari of Nāgendra Gauchhā.¹ These people, who did the work of carvers, were called Khajūchhī. The Bhandārī claim Daddō as their great ancestor.² In 992 A.D., he adopted Janān from Yaśobhadresari of the Bhandaraka Gauchhā. Officially, Daddō was designated as *Śāpārī* or the person in charge of the store house, and consequently, his descendants became known as Bhandārī. The earliest inscription of this clan at Nādhī of 1132 A.D. refers to Bhandārī Nīgāsari as a witness to a certain grant.³ Another inscription of 1182 A.D. refers to one Bhandārī Yaśovīra as the lord of Pallāra village, six miles to the west of Jodhpur.⁴ A Jāner inscription of 1185 A.D. records the rebuilding of the Jaina temple by Bhandārī Yaśovīra, son of Pīlu, in accordance with the orders of Mahārājā Sāmanta Śiśha.⁵ The descendants of the person, who deals in glass, were called Ghīyē. In 1569 A.D. Narabhadra of the Gotra set up the image of Sambhavanandha through Uṭṭavijaya of Tapā Gauchhā.⁶ It is heard that the ancestor of the people of Vaidya Gotra cured the disease of an eye of the queen of Mahārājā of Udaipur. Therefore, he was given the title of Vaidya, and his descendants became famous by Veda Gotra.⁷ In 1451 A.D., Bhūllika of this Gotra installed the image of Vimlanandha through Kulkadīdharya of Upakṣa Gauchhā.⁸ The Mahājani Gotra was probably formed from the profession of *Mahajan*. The inscription of 1457 A.D. records that Nādhī of this Gotra consecrated an image of Sāminandha through Kankamal.⁹ There are also Chandālī and Bāmbī Gotras found among the Osayāha. Their ancestors were with these sorts of people, and, therefore, they began to call themselves by these names. In 1743 A.D., Ramapāl of Chandālī Gotra set up the image of Suvalhānandha for the merit of his father through Panyanulhāmasari of Mahādā Gauchhā.¹⁰

(c) **Gotras After Personal Names:** The names of the Gotras were also given after certain famous persons. The Ādhyañjī Gotra originated from the well known person Ādhyañjī who was very famous for

1. N.H., Nos. 2084 & *Jaini Sampradāya Śikha*, p. 825.

2. Some distinguished Jinnas, p. 36.

3. Ibid.

4. N.H., T. 2394.

5. Ibid., p. 37.

6. N.H., III, No. 5872.

7. Ibid., 2577.

8. Ibid.

9. H.O., p. 100.

10. Ibid., II, 1285.

liberal charities and solicitude for social welfare.¹ Numerous inscriptions of the 12th, 13th and 15th centuries on the pedestals of the images of this Gotra are also found in various places such as Jodhpur, Nagaur, Bikaner etc.² After addressing Pādvāra Rājaputa Lāla Sīṃha in 1110 A.D., Jinavallabha Suri established the Lāḷpī Gotra.³ Lāla Sīṃha had seven sons. The eldest son was very strong (Baṅṭha) and from him originated Baṅṭhiyā Gotra. In 1444 A.D., Sīha Javavāla of Lāḷpī Gotra set up the image of Dharmavīra through Javakulari Suri of Nīchala Gachchha.⁴ In 1479 A.D., Sīha Hāmī of Bāṅṭhiya Gotra made the consecration of Jinavarendera *Parvīla* through Jinachandra Suri.⁵ It is said that the descendants of Gadāṭha were called Gadāṭhiyā.⁶ In 1417 A.D., Sīha Ānā of this Gotra for the merit of his wife Bhīmānī celebrated the consecration ceremony of the image of Sāntivīra through Devagandhari of Upakala Gachchha.⁷ Lamyā Gotra was named after Luna Sīṃha who accepted Jainism from Jinadara Suri. In 1436 A.D., the image of Pārivanātha was consecrated by Gekala of this Gotra through Jināchandravarman of Bhanatara Gachchha.⁸ In 1494 A.D., Hemachandrasuri of Purpatala Gachchha by addressing Pādvāra Rājaputa Jagadeva converted him to Jainism.⁹ Sura and Sāvāla were the two sons of Jagadeva. The descendants of Sura were called Surāḷī and of Sāvālī were known as Sāvāḷī.¹⁰ In 1414 A.D., Sonpāla of Surāḷī Gotra installed the image of Sumatinātha through Vijaya Chanda Suri of Dharmaghoshia Gachchha.¹¹ The consecration ceremony of the image of Sumatinātha was performed by Lākhāla of Sāvāḷī Gotra through Vijaya Chanda Suri of Dharmaghoshia Gachchha in 1438 A.D.¹² Dugala and Sugala, the two brothers accepted Jainism from Jinachandrasuri.¹³ The descendants of Dugala were called Dugala and of Sugala by the name Sugala. In 1460 A.D., Nagaraja of this Gotra performed the consecration of the image of Sreyāṇanātha through Somasundara of Rudrapālī Gachchha.¹⁴ The Bōṭhāḷ Gotra was named after Bōṭhā, the son of the king named Sūra of Devasālī.¹⁵ In 1477 A.D., the installation ceremony of the image of Sreyāṇanātha was

1. *Uttaraṅga Panchanātha Ji Paravansarī Kū Jīhān*, p. 1309.
2. *NIL*, Pt. I & II.
3. *Jaina Sampradāya Śikshā*, p. 626.
4. *NIL*, No. 2817.
5. *Ibid.*, No. 2404.
6. *Jaina Sampradāya Śikshā*, p. 628. Gadāḷī Sīha was the brother of famous Bikaner Sīha.
7. *NIL*, No. 1962.
8. *Jaina Sampradāya Śikshā* pp. 635-637.
9. *NIL*, No. 2196.
10. *Jaina Sampradāya Śikshā*, p. 637.
11. *NIL*, No. 1629.
12. *BJI*, No. 1877.
13. *Jaina Sampradāya Śikshā*, p. 638.
14. *NIL*, No. 1267.
15. *Jaina Sampradāya Śikshā*, pp. 639, 640 and 641.

performed by Tithā of Bodharī Gotra through Jina Chandra Suri of Kharatara Gachchha.¹ From the person Dadherī, this Gotra became famous as Dadheriyī Gotra.² On the preaching of Jimbhulala Suri, Dahyera Sūtha, the Chaudhāna Rājput accepted Jainism. From this name, his descendants were called Dāhī.³

(d) KULAS CONVERTED INTO GOTRAS: Some Kulas also in course of time were converted into Gotras. The ancient Kaiyapa Kula in course of time was converted into Kaiyapa Gotra. From the inscription of 1418 A.D., it is clear that Chudā of this Gotra celebrated the consecration ceremony of the image of Neminātha through Śvatantra of Sapṇesaka Gachchha.⁴ In the 13th century A.D., Sravaya, the son of Karnā Sūtha, accepted Jainism from Yashobhadrā Suri.⁵ His descendants also followed Jainism and became known by Sivaliyā Gotra.

(e) GOTRAS FORMED AFTER ACTIONS: Some Gotras have been also formed after certain actions. The Baradiyā Gotra is said to have originated in about the 11th century A.D. from Nāga Vyantara who gave Varadiyā (gave promise) to Nārāyaṇ.⁶ Baradiyā is the Apabhraṃśa of Varadiyā. In 1527 A.D. the image of Sūtanātha was consecrated by Sāha Toṭhā of this Gotra.⁷ Pīsa was an expert in examining jewels. His descendants were, therefore, known by Pīnśha or Pīkeshā.⁸ In 1461 A.D., Śaṅkapa of this Gotra celebrated the consecration ceremony of the image of Sudhīnātha through Jina Chandra of Kharatara Gachchha.⁹ In 1227 A.D., Jinādasa Suri after addressing Juhāna and Satbhā established Bādhuphāṇī Gotra.¹⁰ His descendants did not move from the battle field and therefore they were called Nāhanā. It may also be supposed that Bādhuphāṇī Gotra was named after the well known person named Bappanāga.¹¹ It is known from the inscriptions of 1529 A.D. that Mokhaya of this Gotra for the merit of his parents set up the image of Sumatinātha through Kakkha Suri.¹² In 1459 A.D., Māhapa of Nāhanā Gotra constructed *śaṅkhalāṭ* of Virahanaṭha temple at Barakuda through Nāhanasāgara Suri.¹³ The sultan of Māndalgach being impressed by the virtues of Jīrāṅghra Sūtha, allowed him to keep the

1. N.J.L., No. 1317. 2. H.O.O., p. 312. 3. Ibid., No. 542.

4. N.J.L., 1991. 5. H.O.O., p. 303. 6. *Jaina Sampradāya Śikṣā*, p. 622.

7. N.J.L., No. 1192. 8. *Jaina Sampradāya Śikṣā*, p. 628. 9. N.J.L., No. 2189.

10. *Jaina Sampradāya Śikṣā*, p. 621. 11. *Bhargava Pīṅvasālha Kā Pārasparā*

Kā Hīkṣā, p. 1109.

12. N.J.L., No. 2253.

13. N.J.L., No. 1967.

Kaṭṭa (knife) in the royal court. His descendants, therefore, became famous by Kaṭṭiyā Gotra.¹ By the influence of the discourses of Bhuvana Sundara, *Goṣṭhi* Tukade, Pīṣade, Pumaṣi and Muṭā of Kaṭṭiyā Gotra constructed a *śaṅkubhāṭ* in Jirāpālī temple in 1426 A.D.² The people, who went on pilgrimage, were given the title of Saṅghavi. A person named Kīka was given the title of *Nāgaṇa Sētha*. His descendants therefore began to be called Sēthiyā.³ In 1497 A.D., Jīnavallabhasūri came to Mandor which was ruled by one king named Nāgaḍe Padbhāra. His son was Kukaḍḍevan who was suffering from leprosy. The king requested him to cure him. He asked the king to bring ghee of some cow and get it rubbed over the body of the prince. After the treatment of three days, he became alright. The king with his family accepted Jainism and Surjī established his Kukaḍḍhopaḍā Gotra.⁴ The minister of the Padbhāra king named Gaṇadhara also accepted Jainism and Surjī established Gaṇadhara Chopaḍā Gotra. There is the mention of the Kukaḍā Chopaḍā Gotra in the inscription of 1479 A.D.⁵ The inscription of 1436 A.D. records that Pāṇḍa of Gaṇadhara Chopaḍā Gotra set up an image of Saṃsṛṣṇanātha through Jīnabhadrasūri.⁶ Kharana Sūḍha Rāthoda at the preaching of Jīnadasasūri accepted Jainism. His elder son, Ambadeva faced the thieves (*chora* or *bhidyā*) and caught them. The name in course of time became Choraḷiyā.⁷

It is known from the inscriptions of the images that some Gotras were specially connected with some Gachchhas. The people of these Gotras celebrated the consecration ceremony of the images through the teachers of their respective Gachchhas. The people of Ādiyaṇāga Gotra performed the consecration ceremony of the various images but all through the Āchāryas of Upakeśa Gachchha. Similarly, the persons belonging to Gaḍḍaliyā Gotra, Bāpharā Gotra and Rāṇakā Gotra celebrated the consecration ceremony through the Āchāryas of Upakeśa Gachchha. The people of Gaṇadhara Chopaḍā Gotra, Dūḡḡ Gotra, Dād Gotra and Luḡiyā Gotra generally performed the installation ceremony of the images through the teachers of Kharasura Gachchha. The people of Ghāṇḡhā Gotra and Chapḍāliyā Gotra

1. *Jaina Saṃpradāya Śikṣā*, p. 624.

2. AMLS., No. 113.

3. *Jaina Saṃpradāya Śikṣā*, p. 624.

4. HOO., p. 427.

5. N.J.I., No. 2130.

6. N.J.I., No. 2114.

7. HOO., p. 509.

set up the images mostly through the Āchāryas of Mādadhān Gachchha. Chhājānaka Gotra is specially related to Pallivāla Gachchha because its persons installed the images generally through the teachers of this Gachchha. The persons of Śāndhyā Gotra are seen installing the images through the masters of Shānderaka Gachchha. The persons belonging to Dugadh Gotra and Mūlādīya Gotra are seen setting up the images respectively through the Āchāryas of Dhyād Gachchha and Aśvāla Gachchha. Sometimes, the persons of the Gotra installed the images through the masters of two Gachchhas. This is specially seen in the case of Śākhīyāśleṣṭha Gotra. They installed the images through the masters of Kāmṇaka Gachchha and Khāṇṇaka Gachchha. It is also noticed though rarely that the persons of one particular Gotra set up images through the teachers of more than one Gachchha.

Śrīmālīs: Śrīmālīs among Jains originated from Śrīmāla now known as Bhinmal in Marwar. In course of time, they multiplied and spread specially in Jodhpur, Udaipur and Sirsi. They occupied the influential position in the society. Their origin may be traced back to the 8th century A.D. There is a *śūtra* in the *prastāva* of *Kṛishṇacharya Katha* of 1118 A.D. which tells that Śrīvaṇa Dēvī of Śrīmāla caste after listening to the religious discourses from Sānti Suri constructed the Chaitya of Aśvinātha in 617 A.D. at Navahama. The oldest genealogy of the Śrīmāla Caste says that a merchant Tejā of Bhāradvāja Gotra and of Śrīmāla Caste was addressed by a Jaina Saint in 738 A.D.¹ From both these instances, it is clear that Jainism was popular and prevalent in Śrīmāla in the eighth century A.D. The long named Vīrdeva of Śrīmāla accepted Jainism from Udayprabha Suri. Along with him, fifty-two *gṛāhī*, followers of Bhāratmaṇḍa, also accepted Jainism.² All were called Śrīmālīs. From the *Pāṭhaṇḍarājya* written by the poet Udayarāma concerning the history of the teachers of Dvijvādaśaika, the branch of Upakāśa Gachchha, it is known that in 705 Śaka era, Rāmaprabha Suri came to this town where he established the Śrīmāla caste.³ From all these instances, it is clear that Śrīmālīs among the Jains came into existence in the seventh or eighth century A.D.

1. *Jaina Postaka Prasānti Saṅgraha*, No. 35.

2. *Jaina Sahitya Samśodhanakā Samā Samśodhaya Atmānaya Śatāṭhī Samśodha Samśodha, Vajirālī Vāṭṭāṭhā*, p. 204. 3. *Śrī Jaina Itihāsa Saṅgraha*, pp. 13-14.

4. *Prāgyāṭha Itihāsa*—Introduction, p. 12.

In course of time, Śrīmāṇis were divided into two classes namely Laghu Śikṣā and Byahat Śikṣā. The inscription of 1483 A.D. indicates that Sahasakarana of Laghu Śikṣā of the Śrīmāṇa Caste for the merit of his mother celebrated the consecration of the image of Ādinātha through Siddhanta Sāgara of Ācārāśa Gachchāha.¹ There is also an inscription of 1944 A.D. of Byahat Śikṣā of Śrīmāṇa caste.² Besides, there are various Gotras found among the Śrīmāṇis as known to us from the inscriptions. These are based on occupations, place names and other grounds.

Gotras or Sufwāras: The Gotras of Śrīmāṇis originated in various ways. Āmbikā Gotra seems to have originated from the deity Āmbikā. In 1477 A.D., Śreṣṭha Chāndravarī of this Gotra for the merit of ancestors performed the installation ceremony of the image of Sāntinātha through Lakshmantara Sura.³ Ālāhata Gotra is mentioned in the inscription of 1442 A.D.⁴ There are also the inscriptions of Goyaliyā Gotra⁵ and Ghevariya Gotra.⁶ The inscription of 1412 A.D. records that Jayajī of Gāndhārī Gotra set up the image of Dharmasthā.⁷ In 1479 A.D., the consecration of the image of Sāntinātha was celebrated by Phada of Gaunava Gotra.⁸ Here, this Gotra seems to have originated from the bank founded by some saint named Gaunava. Chaudhārī⁹ Gotra and Daudī Gotra are also found in the inscriptions.¹⁰ Desī Gotra,¹¹ Mahariyā Gotra, Junvāla Gotra, Jhangariyā Gotra, Nirvāra Gotra,¹² Bhūgeliyā¹³ Gotra, Bhūjipā¹⁴ Gotra, Mārchhalapuri Gotra,¹⁵ Vanavati Gotra,¹⁶ Śreṣṭhī Gotra,¹⁷ Sijghadi Gotra,¹⁸ Phophaliya Gotra,¹⁹ Bhūydevan Gotra,²⁰ Maruṇi Gotra²¹ and Seldhi Gotra²² are found in the inscriptions of the 14th century A.D. Dūmī Gotra,²³ Pāraṇ Gotra²⁴ and Niharagāḍ Gotra²⁵ are seen in the inscriptions belonging to the 15th century A.D.

1. N.J.L., No. 1166.

2. Ibid., No. 295.

3. E.J.L., No. 1163.

4. N.J.L., No. 1670.

5. Ibid., No. 442.

6. Ibid., No. 413.

7. Ibid., No. 2320.

8. Ibid., No. 2461.

9. Ibid., No. 330.

10. Ibid., No. 38.

11. Ibid., No. 301.

12. Ibid., No. 1003.

13. Ibid., No. 1974.

14. Ibid., No. 1960.

15. Ibid., No. 1007.

16. Ibid., No. 1022.

17. Ibid., No. 2080.

18. Ibid., No. 1224 & 1227.

19. Ibid., No. 737 & 823.

20. Ibid., No. 777.

21. Ibid., No. 2333.

22. Ibid., No. 2292.

23. Ibid., No. 2429.

24. Ibid., No. 760.

25. Ibid., No. 2370.

PORAVĪLAH: It is said that Poravīlas originated simultaneously with Śrīmālā from Śrīmālā in the eighth century A.D. The people of the eastern gate of Śrīmālā, who accepted Jainism from the Jain sages in the eighth century A.D., were called Poravīlas.¹ The origin of the Poravīlas from Śrīmālā does not seem to be correct. In old inscriptions and manuscripts, Prāgyā has been used for the Poravīla.² Prāgyā was another name of Mewar (Mehpāṭā). It seems that the people of Prāgyā country in course of time began to be called Prāgyā or Poravīlas. The Poravīlas tell their origin from the village Pora in Mewar. Like Śrīmālā, Poravīlas were also divided into Laghā Sākhā and Brīhad Sākhā. We have the inscription of Laghā Sākhā of Poravīla caste of 1633 A.D.³ The image of Śrīmānātha was set up in 1534 A.D. by Mānī Viśāha of Brīhad Sākhā of Prāgyā Caste.⁴

The Gotras⁵ of the Poravīla Caste as known from the inscriptions and manuscripts are as follows:—Jhalara, Munhahyā, Lāmbā, Mandaliyā, Kunagiri, Papela, Narvā, Lolāniya, Posaī, Kothāri, Bhajānī, Ambāi, Kadaki and Nāga. In 1546 A.D., the brothers Tejapāla, Rājpāla, Rāmasā and Rāmadāsa of Kothāri Gotra of Prāgyā Caste constructed the temple of Mahāvīra, at the village named Pundarīdā in Śirolī Sagar.⁶ Sānti of Bhajānī Gotra installed the image of Manisvratānātha in 1557 A.D.⁷ In 1571 A.D., Vṛavahī Khimā of Ambāi Gotra set up the image of Dharmānātha.⁸ In 1586 A.D., Mula of Kadaki Gotra celebrated the consecration ceremony of the image of Ādinātha through Vijayana Suri of Tapā Gachhā.⁹

PALLĪVALA CASTE: Pallīvālas both among the Dīpanbaras and Svātābaras, seem to have been named after Pālī in Mārwār the name of which in older times was Pallikā. It is said that the people of this place were converted to Jainism in about the eighth century A.D. by Ratnapradhūman who converted the people of Osāi and Śrīmālā. Pallīvālas are known to have celebrated the consecration ceremony of images from time to time. In 1233 A.D., Dedā of this caste installed an image of Mallinātha through Yaśohandra of Chandra Gachhā.¹⁰ People of this caste also led Saṅghas to holy places from time to time from Pālī.¹¹

1. *Śrī Jaina Gotra Saṅgraha*, pp. 13-23.

2. *Ujja Nīlāmālā Saṅgraha*, p. 26.

3. N.J.I., No. 1614.

4. Ibid., No. 2461.

5. *Śrī Jaina Gotra Saṅgraha*, p. 50 (Introduction).

6. Ibid.

7. N.J.I., No. 947, 948 and 1300.

8. Ibid., 621.

9. Ibid., 1214.

10. Ibid., 1306.

11. Ibid., 1578.

12. *Ulaguṇa Pāramitā Rā Pārasparā Rā Uḷḷā*, p. 644.

KHANDHARAVĀLA CASTE: There is no doubt that the Caste of Khandharavālas originated from the place named Khandhāl. But there is some difficulty in assigning the time to this incident. According to the legendary account, Jimmāndharvā in the line of the saint Aparāṇṭha, converted the Chauhān king of Khandhāl with his subjects to Jainism in v. s. 17. Eighty-two Rājputs and two goldsmiths were ruling over eighty-four villages of the kingdom of Khandhāl. The eighty-four Gotras were formed either after the names of the villages or the heads of villages. The Gotras of the two goldsmiths became Āmāṭya Bājā and Mohanīya Bājā. The time assigned to this incident is not correct. There are no solid grounds for the existence of this caste before the eighth century A.D. The earliest mention of this caste is found in the inscription of 1197 A.D.¹

The origin of the eighty-four Gotras from the eighty-four villages at one particular time, does not seem to be correct. The number eighty-four seems to be only conventional. There are eighty-four castes, eighty-four positions (*ḍāmas*) etc. Originally, these Gotras may be less in number, but gradually they increased. Some Gotras not even in existence at the beginning were added in order to make them eighty-four in number. These Gotras seem to be based on the place names, occupations and surnames etc.

REGIONAL GOTRAS: The Gotras also seem to be regional in nature. Ajmerī Gotra was probably named after Ajmer. Saṅghatī, the wife of Sīlha Samajasa of Ajmer of this Gotra, got the *Prasannamāhātmya* written and gave to the nun Vimalakī in 1538 A.D. There is also the mention of this Gotra in the inscription of 1594 A.D. Pāpālī Gotra seems to have originated from the village Pāpālī in Sektīyāl. It is found in the *Prabodh* of 1767 A.D.² Daus Gotra seems to have originated from the place named Daus in Jaipur State. Bhoirā of this Gotra of Ajmer set up the image of Chaudhī in 1601 A.D. The Gotra Kāsāvalā seems to have come into existence from the village Kāsāl near Sikara in Jaipur State. It is mentioned in the *Prabodh* of the copy of the manuscript written in 1724 A.D.³ Pājani Gotra started from the

1. Manuscript in the Suktā Bhāṇḍārā at Ajmer.

2. *अजमेरवासी राजा सिलह समजसा की पत्नी सांगती* (Inscription on the image of white marble in the temple of Saṅghatī at Jaipur.) 3. PS., p. 138. 4. PS., p. 175. 5. PS., p. 96.

village named Pāraṇa, near Kilmajālā. Pāraṇādē, the wife of Pāraṇāja of this Gotra of Nāgar, presented a copy of the *Ādiparśva* to Dharmachandra in 1125 A.D.¹ There is also a mention of this Gotra in the inscription of 1594 A.D.² Todgēṭ Gotra may have originated from Toṣk. It is mentioned in the *praband* of 1522 A.D.³ Kālā Gotra seems to have been named from Kālādevī near Chitana in Jammu State. Rāha of this Gotra celebrated the consecration ceremony of an image of 1516 A.D.⁴ It is also found in the *praband* of 1607 A.D.⁵

OCCUPATIONAL GOTRAS: The Gotras were also formed after the occupations. Veda Gotras started from the person who followed the profession of medicine. His descendants in course of time began to be called by this name. In 1584 A.D., Mokā with his wife and sons of this Gotra installed the Saṃyagdarśana Yantra.⁶ From the legendary account, it is clear that the ancestor of Bāja Gotra was a gobdanish at the time of his conversion to Jainism. In 1646 A.D., Hārīnātha of this Gotra performed the *praband* of Dādakībhaga Yantra.⁷ The name of this Gotra is also found in the *praband* of 1688 A.D. The Sōṭ Gotra also indicates the profession of the people. The earliest mention of it is known from the inscription of 1584 A.D. in which Sāha Tēṭ of this Gotra installed Karakūṇḍapātrīvanātha Yantra.⁸ It is also mentioned in the *praband* of 1688 A.D.⁹ Bohat Gotra seems to have originated from the persons who lend money. Ratanī of this Gotra with his sons celebrated the consecration ceremony of the *patra* in 1484 A.D.¹⁰

TITLES AND SURNAMES: Titles and surnames also seem to have developed into the Gotras. Sāha Gotra seems to have originated from the term sāha used for respect and veneration for the person. Sāhara of this Gotra with his wife and sons installed the Aham Yantra in 1559 A.D.¹¹ The name of this Gotra is also found in the *praband* of 1598 A.D.¹² The title of Chaudhāri was given by the Government to those who did the work of revenue collection. In course of time, it was developed into the Gotra. Sāha Mahārāj of this Gotra got the copy of the *Parīkṣitadhikāra* written and gave

1. PS., p. 2.

2. See above, p. 81.

3. PS., p. 177.

4. See above, p. 70.

5. PS., p. 89.

6. See above, p. 81.

7. संवत् १७०६ ईशान्व मास प्रविष्टदशम—बदा की हजरीनाम प्रमाणित ।

8. See above, p. 81.

9. PS., p. 4.

10. See above, p. 81.

11. See above, p. 80.

12. PS., p. 93.

tion dated 1170 A.D.¹ This place was also the seat of the Bhāṣṭrakas in the twelfth century A.D.² There is a belief that Rāmasena and Nemusena, the Digambara Jaina saints, converted the king of this town with his subjects to Jainism.³ If not all, majority of the citizens of the town must have embraced Jainism from their hands. Pt. Yādubhai, who went to Dhārmasagar from Māndlagadha for fear of the invasion of Mahmūd Ghori in the 12th century, was of Bagheriyā caste.⁴ Pura Sūtra, who reported the famous Kirtistandha at Chitor in the 15th century A.D. during the reign of Kumbhakarapa, was of this caste.⁵ The Gotras of this caste as known both from the inscriptions and *purāṇa* are as follows—(1) Rāyabhaṭṭarī,⁶ (2) Sāṅkhavālā,⁷ (3) Śāśiparī⁸ (4) Thādī,⁹ (5) Koyā,¹⁰ (6) Prakhī¹¹ and (7) Śiravādy.¹²

AGRAVĀLA CASTE: The Agravālas are found in large numbers in Rajasthan. They occupy a respectable position in the society. They are highly educated and much advanced. They are found both among the Jains and the Hindus. They are also an important middle class of business men. They enthusiastically supported Jainism in the past. They performed the installation ceremony of numerous images and got copies of the manuscripts written. According to the traditions, Agravāla caste originated from the place named Agravāla in the Punjab and was founded by Agrasena. Once he performed a sacrifice but stopped it when he saw the animals in a miserable condition. Probably, he was influenced by the doctrine of *ahimsā*. It is not clear whether he accepted Jainism or not, but from the *purāṇa*,¹³ it is known that Lokirāchārīya converted the Agravālas with their king Divākara to Jainism. Later on, Agravālas began to follow Jainism. According to Nageshachārīya Vasa, this Agrasena is the same Ugrasena mentioned in the Allahabad inscription of Samudra Gupta.¹⁴ Lokirāchārīya was the master of Devavāldīya Gani who arranged the *Vishva* in 411 A.D. at Valabhi. The time of Lokirāchārīya may be thirty years before Devavāldī. He thus converted the Agravālas along with their king to Jainism in 411 A.D. But this

1. *RI.*, V. XXIV, p. 84, *Vogues*, 82-83.

2. *IA.*, V. XX, See Table of Pontifical

Residences, p. 57.

3. Manuscript in the Śāstra Bhandāra of Ajmer.

4. *JSAL.*, p. 134.

5. *ABRMA.*, Vr. 1920-27, No. 10.

6. *KAL.*, No. 438.

7. *Ibid.*, No. 727.

8. *Ibid.*, No. 628.

9. *PS.*, p. 147.

10. *PS.*, p. 98.

11. Inscription on Yantra in the Jain temple at Jaipur.

12. See above, p. 72.

13. *See Bhagavata Purāṇa, Skandha Kā Purāṇa, Kā Purāṇa, p. 250.*

14. *Ibid.*, p. 548.

view does not seem to be tenable. First of all, this Ugrasena was the ruler of Northern India while Ugrasena Devanashtrakas mentioned in the Allahabad inscription was ruling in the south. Lastly, we have no definite evidence for the existence of this caste before the 8th century A.D. Its Gotras as known both from the inscriptions and the *pratisāras* are as follows—Goyala,¹ Gargāḥ Śiṅghala² and Bāṭhala³ etc. The Agravāllas seem to have been mostly associated with the Kāśyapā Saṅgha and rarely with Mula Saṅgha.

NARASIMHAPURĪ & JAISAVALA CASTES: Narasimhapurī and Jaisavala castes among the Digambaras started from the places like Narasimhapurī in Mewar and Jaisalmer respectively in medieval times. The Digambara Jaina saints went to these places for the propagation of Jainism which was adopted by the people. They formed castes which were named after their respective places:

CHITTOPĀ AND NĀGADĀ CASTES: Chittodī and Nāgadī castes among the Digambaras originated from the old places Chittor and Nāgadī respectively in Mewar. These castes seem to have come into existence in medieval times. People of these castes were religious minded and got several copies of manuscripts written in medieval times in order to present them to Jaina monks. They constructed temples and placed images in them with great ceremony. They were generally concerned with the Bhadrakas of the Mula Saṅgha of Vīṇaka and Kāśyapā Saṅgha. Bhadrakā Jāṇabhusana, who lived in the fifteenth century A.D., wrote the *Nāgadī-āra* describing the history of the Nāgadī caste among the Jains.⁴

DEWARĀPA CASTE: The place of the origin of Dewarāpa caste is not traceable. Most probably, like other castes, it must have originated from some particular place. In Rājasthan, the people of this caste are found in Darganagar, Banswara and Pratapsagar, the portion of ancient Vīṇaka province. They are found both among the Digambaras and the Svetāmbaras. In the Digambaras, they remained in close touch mostly with the Bhadrakas of the Kāśyapā Saṅgha and rarely with the Āchāryas of Mula Saṅgh of Vīṇaka. This caste also like other castes seems to have come into existence after the 8th century A.D. The persons of this caste also performed the installation ceremony of numerous images and temples. The

1. PS., p. 86. 2. Ibid., p. 119. 3. Ibid., p. 82. 4. Ibid., p. 97.

5. Śvetas Bhadrakas Śri Dewarāpa Jaina Mantra Sandhacandha Ratī lacare, Odipon.

famous Jain temple at Jaisalmer is said to have been constructed by Siba Pipā of this caste.¹

Hunthia caste in course of time was divided into Sikkhā and Gomas. The three Sikkhās of this caste known to us are namely Lagna, Sikkh, Brihar Sikkh and Varskhvati Sikkh. Varskhvati Sikkh were probably originated from Varskhvati, who was the minister of Mats Rājā Harishchandra.² On the orders of Manikya, he invited one thousand families of this caste to Kāthiawar from Sipsavāt. He also started the work of the construction of the Dāsārām Jain temple at Devahi but its installation ceremony was performed in 1717 A.D. after his death by his son Vardhamāna and Devahi. There are eighteen Gomas of this caste:³ (1) Kharana, (2) Kamsdevana, (3) Kthakdevana, (4) Unaddevana, (5) Manraddevana, (6) Bhimdevana, (7) Bhadradevana, (8) Gahaddevana, (9) Vistdevana, (10) Sindhdevana, (11) Anddevana, (12) Chārchanddevana, (13) Samdevana, (14) Rajyāna, (15) Laldevana, (16) Kamdevana, (17) Indraddevana, (18) Sanghdevana.

DHARMAJA VAKRA: The people of Dharmaja caste are found both among the Digambaras and the Śvetāmbaras. The author of *Dharmajavakṛtā* named Harihara of our caste lived in the 10th century A.D.⁴ There is a mention of this caste in the inscription of 124 A.D. at Delavāgā.⁵ In the two inscriptions of Ālā also, these people have been described.⁶ In the beginning, this caste seems to have originated in Rajasthan but now its people are found in the north. From the expression, *Singapuriya Thakhsadkhala* of Haddana, Pt. NATH RAMA PRASAD holds that it originated probably from Singa or Thak Sing.⁷ Mr. Arvi Chandra Nāth observes that it originated from Dhakadolekha from which also originated the Dhakadi branch of the Mahesvari Caste.⁸ On the evidence of the two *prabandh*,⁹ he tries to locate this place near Sīmāla.

Saivaraṇa Caste: The *Sīmālaṇa bandh* are numerous even today. There are also numerous Bāṭhūmāras who call themselves after the same place *Saivaraṇa*. The name of both is derived from the ancient town Madhvatwadi of Anandavād. The famous Hemachandra Suri was also born in this

1. *Anukṛānta*, Vol. 13, p. 124. 2. *Ibid.*, p. 124. 3. *Anukṛānta* Vol. 13, p. 124.

4. JSAL, p. 468. 5. *Anukṛānta*, Vol. 3, p. 124. 6. *Ibid.* 7. JSAL, p. 468.

8. *Anukṛānta*, Vol. 4, p. 810. 9. *Jaina Pustaka Prasasti Samgraha*, Nos. 52 & 93.

caste. The inscriptions of the people of this caste can be traced from the 12th century A.D.

The people of these different Castes and Gotras are found all over Rajasthan. Usually, the Saptami marriage does not take place in them. These people are money lenders, business men, Government officers and agriculturists. They occupy a very respectable position in the society.

CHAPTER IV

JAINA ART

Jaina art in its various aspects viz. architecture, sculpture and painting developed to a great extent in early times. During the Muslim period, there was an influx of the Śālvakas from the neighbouring provinces, because they considered the Rājput princes as the saviours of their faith and protectors of their religion. As a result of peace and prosperity enjoyed under the Rājput rule, they erected artistic monuments by the inspiration of their religious teachers. Though most of them have been destroyed by the levelling hand of the time and the iconoclastic zeal of the Muslim fanatic rulers, those surviving give us a glimpse of the evolution of art in different periods.

1. JAINA ARCHITECTURE

The existence of Jaina temples of very early times is known only from late traditions, though they cannot be entirely relied upon. An inscription of 1369 A.D. at Munga-hali near Simli says that Śat Keśi Gamastrin installed a Jaina image in the Jaina temple at Arbudagiri, during the thirty-seventh year of the life time of Mahavira. This statement cannot stand an examination, because, at this time, Jainism could not be so popular in this distant region as to induce a devotee to install an image. The poet Śaṇḍaḡani of the early seventeenth century A.D. says that Chandragupta Maurya constructed a temple of Parśvanatha at Gṛahghāṭi in Marwar.¹ Actually, at present, no portion of the temple can be attributed to the Mauryan time, but from the style, it seems to have been built in the eleventh century A.D.

1. APJLS., No. 248.

2. *Bhagavān Parśvanathā Ki Parvatparā Kā Uddahar*, p. 273.

The great grandson of Chandragupta Maurya named Samprati, according to the Jaina books, is said to have constructed a large number of Jaina temples in Rajasthan, Malwa and Kachhiwar. An inscription of 1629 A.D. engraved on the image of the temple of Ādinātha at Nādhī speaks of the rebuilding by the whole Jaina community of Nādhī of the temple which was originally constructed by Samprati, the hero of Jaina traditions.¹ As a matter of fact, no Jaina temple of Samprati's time is now in existence anywhere in Rajasthan. Toṭi wrongly attributes an old temple of Kumbhalmer to Samprati.² According to him, the design of this temple is truly classic. It consists only of the sanctuaries, which has a vaulted dome and colonnaded portico all round. There is chasteness and simplicity. The proportions and forms of columns are slight and tapering. This type of architecture is undoubtedly Jaina. The extreme want of decorations attests its antiquity to the time of Samprati. But BHASDARRAN³ thinks Toṭi to be quite wrong in ascribing this temple to the second century B.C. It was left in an unfinished condition. Its construction cannot be placed earlier than the twelfth century A.D., because the style of its pillars resembles that of Tejapālā temple at Delavāḍā on Mt. Abu.

Not only from late traditions, but the existence of Jaina temples in early times is also known from their scattered fragments. The Badali inscription⁴ on a hexagonal pillar shows that probably, it might originally belong to some Jaina monument in the fifth century B.C. Its existence during this period is not impossible because about a century had elapsed since Mahāvīra preached his doctrines. The excavations conducted at Keṭavāspāṭana near Bandi may also prove the existence of Jaina temple in the fourth or fifth century A.D. because one Kalpayakṣhapara of Jaina mythology and other Jaina sculptures were discovered at a depth of about 25 feet from the surface of the mound along with the bricks of the characteristic of the Gupta age.

Possibly due to Huna invasions, the very early Jaina temples disappeared. Even those, which remained intact, were repaired from time to time and thus transformed. It is, therefore, difficult to get an idea of Jaina architecture of ancient times. From about the eighth century A.D., we get

1. NJI, No. 856.

2. *Annals and Antiquities of Rajasthan*, II, pp. 670-71.

3. PRAS. vol., 1908-09, p. 41.

4. *Bhāratīyapūchitānūtīpāmūlā*, p. 2.

some knowledge of the style of architecture of the medieval Jaina temples built in Rajasthan.

SOME PECULIAR FEATURES OF JAINA ARCHITECTURE: Most of the medieval Jaina temples of Rajasthan like Brahmanical temples are of *Nagara* style. Their fundamental characteristics are the cruciform plan and the curvilinear *Sikhara*. Some of the temples built in Western Rajasthan under the patronage of the Chālukyas may be placed under the *Devra* style. It borrows the elements and features of both the *Nagara* and the *Devra* styles, and it became distinguishable from about the eleventh century A.D. These Jaina temples cannot be distinguished from the Brahmanical temples on sectarian basis, because the same artists, who worked for one sect, were employed also by another sect in the same period and in the same region. When we talk of Jaina architecture, it means temples built under the patronage of followers of the Jaina faith. They were so designed in their arrangements as to conform to the ritual of the Jains and thus they show peculiarities of Jaina architecture. The classical style of stone was exclusively the characteristic of Jaina architecture in Northern India.¹ As it was also the essential feature of the architecture of the Muslims before they came into India, they consequently destroyed Jaina temples in order to seize their domes for their conversion into mosques. In an old Jaina temple, we generally find the principal shrine in the centre, porch and subshrines. Besides, the Jains preferred enclosed compartments instead of open columned halls, thus, ensuring seclusion for their contemplation.² Besides, in Jaina temples, we generally do not find amorous figures but only such of them as create an atmosphere of chastity and simplicity.

JAINA ARCHITECTURE THROUGH THE AGES: In Rajasthan, there is hardly any important town where a Jaina temple does not exist. But all of them do not represent any peculiarity of Jaina architecture and, therefore, only the important and representative temples of different times have been selected for description in order to bring into prominence the chief features of Jaina architecture. The Jaina temples of the eighth, ninth and tenth centuries are simple in style, though in several respects they are crude imitations of the later Gupta art. In the eleventh and twelfth centuries A.D.,

1. *History of Indian and Eastern Architecture*, pp. 250-51.

2. *Indian Architecture*, p. 77.

as a result of long experience and continuous development, the Jaina style of architecture reached its culmination in all respects. From that style, it progressed further during the next one or two centuries towards greater richness but in doing so lost the purity and perfection it had attained in the earlier period; and from that culminating point, its downward development may be traced through abundant examples to the present day.

JAINA TEMPLES OF THE EIGHTH, NINTH AND TENTH CENTURIES: The Pratihāras were ruling over Rajasthan in the early medieval period. During their reign, Jaina temples were built. From a *prashasti* of the *Kanakpanthi*, it is known that the disciples of Yakshadantagapi, the grand pupil of Devagupta, beautified Gomarsdevia by constructing many Jaina temples in about seventh or eighth century A.D. Further, it is known that Hlibhotana composed the *Kanakpanthi* in the temple of Vidyadha constructed by Vimaladha in the town of Jāṇḍipura (Jaipur) full of Śrāvakas and beautiful Jaina temples in 778 A.D.¹ There were Jaina temples at Chitra in the eighth century A.D. as known from Haribhadra. It is clear from the *Jambhadrakpanthi*, a work of about tenth century A.D. of Palanmasandi that there were several Jaina temples at Barah in Kotah state.²

The number of existing temples of this period is not very large. Many of them were later rebuilt and only fragments indicate their former existence. These temples are small structures with small Śikharas but they are marked by simplicity, serenity and elegance. The pot and foliage types of pillars are found in them. The shaft of the pillars is fluted. The doorways are decorated with floral designs. Among the temples of this period, the Jaina temple of Mahāvīra at Osia is the most complete as it consists of a sanctum, a closed hall and an open porch. Immediately in front of this porch is a *Torana* or ornamental arch. As known from an inscription, it was originally constructed in the reign of Vatsarāja whose date 781-84 A.D. is also known from the Jaina *Harivanshprashasti*. Besides, there is a second porch in this temple known as *śikharamukha* erected subsequently over the *śikhara* staircase. It is enclosed both at the sides and the back by a row of subsidiary shrines. Both *śikharamukha* and these subsidiary shrines seem to have been rebuilt in the tenth century A.D.³

1. JBORS, 1928, March, p. 38.

2. JSAL, p. 571.

3. A. S. I. An. Rep., 1908-09, p. 103.

Besides, there are surviving portions of Jaina temples of this period at other places in Marwar. From the Ghajiyālī inscription, it is clear that Kākka of Pratihāra dynasty of Mānder built the Jaina temple in 861 A.D. At present, there is only a niche, the left side of which is engraved with an inscription and the right side sculptured into the figure of a goddess seated on a lion.¹ At Mānder, there is an old Jaina temple to the north of the cave of Nāthadās. It is a two-storied structure consisting of two cells running on three sides of an oblong both above and below. The pillars of the *Sabhitamandapa* in front of the shrine are old, dating as early as the tenth century A.D.² At Pāl, the Jaina temple known as Naulakṣī is undoubtedly an old building that has undergone repairs. The most ancient part of the temple is *gṛhamandapa* or closed hall, the pillars of which cannot be later than the tenth century A.D. This conclusion is further confirmed by inscriptions on the images found in this temple.³ At Nadasar about 6 miles east of Sargpara, there is an old Jaina temple. Its *Sabhitamandapa* is built of old columns of about the tenth century A.D.⁴ The Jaina temple of Mahāvīra at Nūl in the Bālī district seems to be of the tenth century A.D. as known from an inscription of 960 A.D. Its old pillars are also probably of this age.⁵ At Śevāḍī, six miles from Bīpar in Marwar, there is a temple of Mahāvīra which seems to be a tenth century structure. The only surviving portion of the temple are the walls. The simple figures on these walls are not elaborate but are artistically carved and cannot be later than the tenth century A.D.⁶

The area round about Sirolī remained a great centre of Jainism in early times on account of Jaina temples constructed there. At Bhadresar, there is the Jaina temple which the people call Jagadusi, the work of several ages often altered and restored. The alterations and additions have spoiled the architecture.⁷ At Uthaman, there is also an old Jaina temple. The massive mouldings and their width and the horizontal courses point to the tenth or eleventh century as the period of their construction. It seems that the Jaina temples were also erected at this early date in Bikaner state. The temple of Tārānagar is said to have been founded in 954 A.D. At Rīpī, there

1. PRAS, Wc., 1908-7, p. 31.

2. Ibid., p. 51.

3. PRAS, wc., 1907-08, p. 43.

4. Ibid., 1911-12, p. 53.

5. Ibid., 1907-08, pp. 48-49.

6. Ibid., p. 53.

7. Ibid., 1905-06, p. 39.

is a handsome Jain temple built in the tenth century A.D.¹ The temple of Nohara also seems to have belonged to this period. The remains of old Jain temples have been also discovered at Pallu. But, here too, practically nothing of the old temples has survived except a number of sculptures and architectural fragments.²

In the territory of Mewar, the early Jain monuments of this time are found. The most interesting is the tower of Sri Aditya at Chitrot. It was constructed in 896 A.D. as is known from the inscription which once existed at its base. From the style also, there seems to be no doubt that it was built in the ninth century A.D. It was dedicated to Ādinātha, the first of the Jain Tīrthaṅkara, whose figure is sculptured hundreds of times on the face of the tower. It is about 8½ feet in height and adorned with sculptures and mouldings from the base to the summit.³ It is a piece of exquisite art without any elaboration. At Nāgdlā, there is a Jain temple partly built into the rock of a hill, known as Padmāvatī Jain temple. The temple was originally a Digambara one and belongs to the tenth century A.D. as known from its inscription dated 946 A.D.⁴ At Vinapur, near Parahgarh, there is a Jain temple which is said to be two thousand years old but it is in ruins now.⁵ Actually, this temple belongs to the 9th or 10th century A.D. from the style of its construction.

Monuments of this period are also in existence in the Koon State. There are the caves of the eighth or ninth century A.D. situated on the hills at a distance of three miles from Bāngash. In the ruined town of Kṛishnavillāsa popularly known as simply Villāsa, there are three ruined Digambara Jain temples belonging to a period between the eighth and tenth centuries. One of them must have been a big structure in early times. Its shaft, porch, arches, brackets, cupolas and a few decorative motifs lying in heaps round about the broken statues of Tīrthaṅkara give a correct idea of its size and glory when it stood intact. The second temple is of small size but a large number of statues of Tīrthaṅkara lying in heaps round it shows that the Hindu pattern of not leaving any space undecorated was copied. But the decorative motifs

1. *Gazetteer of Bikaner State*, p. 195.

2. *The Art and Architecture of Bikaner State*, p. 58.

3. *History of Indian and Eastern Architecture*, p. 261.

4. *PRAS.*, vol., 1904-05, p. 61.

5. *A Gazetteer of Pratihara State*, 1908, p. 290.

chosen are only the Tirthaṅkaras in meditative posture. The third temple is most interesting. The building is of not much consequence but a lot of its material has been used by the neighbouring villagers who used it for the construction of their houses. The special feature of this temple is that it is provided with sixteen sanctuaries, each containing a statue of the Tirthaṅkara. Thus sixteen Tirthaṅkaras were worshipped in a single temple and each one can be identified with the help of the proper *litikāṇa*.

Besides, there are some Jain monuments of this time in other parts of Rajasthan. At Chārsa in Jaipur State, there is a Śaśivagi temple on the hill but now appropriated to Śiva worship. The whole temple is a modern construction built out of old material but the gate of the shrine is undoubtedly old, perhaps as old as the eighth century A.D.¹ There are some very beautiful Jain temples at Bhungur in the Alwar territory. One of them is a lovely monument and belongs to the tenth century A.D.² All these above buildings or their parts accord with the Jain style of the age and can easily be distinguished from the contemporary Brāhmaṇical art by the complete absence of amorous scenes.

THE GOLDEN AGE IN JAINA ARCHITECTURE: The period between the eleventh century and the thirteenth century may be considered as the golden age in the history of Jain architecture. During this period, the Chauhāṇa, Chāluḷyā and Paramāra princes were ruling over the different parts of Rajasthan. They were great patrons of Jainism. Besides, Jainism received a great incentive at the hands of rich Jain merchants, bankers, ministers and generals. They built temples noteworthy for their ornamental details. Generally, these temples consisted of *maḥapīṭha*, *pidhamandapa*, *śikhātorandapa* and *devakūṭa*. The *śikhara* of the *Nāgara* style began to appear in distinct form from this time.

Kumbharia in Southern Rajputana possesses a number of Jain temples of the 11th century A.D. which show further development and characteristic in the Jain architecture of this region. The Jain temple of Nemisāra is situated in quadrangular court and the double *devakūṭa* crown the *ang-śikhara* as well as the main *śikhara*. The Parivaraṭha temple of this place is also identical in form and design. The *mandapa* of these two temples

1. PRAS., vol. 1909-10, p. 50.

2. *History of Indian and Eastern Architecture*, p. 250.

is unique, built of white marbles. Its roof is supported by elegant pillars with capitals. The pillars are richly carved with ornamental arches on the flanks. The *sanctuary* is surrounded by cells of images approached through small well-decorated doorways.

A further development of the above style of Jaina architecture may be recognized in the celebrated two Jaina temples of Mount Abu. The earlier one dedicated to Ādinātha was built by a minister named Vināya in 1031 A.D., the later one was constructed by Tejapāla in 1230 A.D. Both the temples are very similar in style. The beauty of the buildings and the skill of the artists have been appreciated by several scholars. Cousens remarks, "The amount of the beautiful ornamental detail, spread over these temples in the minutely carved decoration of the ceilings, pillars, doorways, panels and niches, is simply marvellous; the crisp, thin, translucent, shell-like treatment of the marble surpasses anything seen elsewhere, and some of the designs are veritable dreams of beauty. In the words of Finlayson, "these temples for minute delicacy of carving and beauty of detail stand almost unrivalled even in the land of patient and lavish labour." Tod justly remarks, "the delineation of it defies pen and would tax to the utmost the pencil of the most patient artist; and he further asserts that "no ornament of the most florid style of Gothic architecture can be compared with it in richness. It appears like a cluster of the half-disclosed lotus, whose cups are so thin, so transparent and so accurately wrought that it fixes the eye in admiration."

The temple of Ādinātha built by Vināya is one of the oldest as well as one of the most complete examples of Jaina temple. It formed some sort of model and illustration for the other temples. The entrance is through a domed square portico building supported by six pillars. The main object in this temple is a cell with a figure of a Tirthankara which terminates upwards in a *dhikara* of pyramidal spire-like roof. It is attached with a *parikra* of a large size, surmounted by a dome resting on eight pillars. The *parikra* is composed of forty-eight free-standing pillars and the whole is enclosed in oblong court yard about 140 feet by 90 feet surrounded by a double colonnade of small pillars, forming *pranicas* to a range of cells fifty in number which enclose it on all sides. Each cell is occupied by the cross-legged figure

1. IRAS, vol. 1901, p. 3.

2. *History of India and Eastern Architecture*, p. 303.

of a Tirthaṅkara. The great pillars are of the same height as those of the smaller porticoes and like them, they furnish with the usual bracket capitals. Upon them, the upper dwarf columns are placed to give them additional height and on these upper columns rest the great beams which support the dome. The lovely marble dome in this temple is further beautified by rich carvings. In the roofs of the corridors also, the most complicated ornamental designs have been carved. Externally, the temple is perfectly plain except the spire of the cell.

The temple of Neminātha built by Vastupāla and Tejapāla stands in a court yard measuring about 155 feet by 92 feet. The plan of the temple is largely an imitation of Vimala's temple but it also differs in certain aspects. It has two porches or *mandapas*. One of which is called the *mahāmandapa* and the other *ardhamandapa*. The pillars supporting the porch are somewhat taller and of eight different types. Around the courtyard are arranged the seventy cells with a covered and enclosed passage in front of them and each of these contains a cross legged seated figure of the Tirthaṅkara. On the pillars, there stand the massive architraves on which there is a dome. The domical ceiling of the temple and especially the pendant ornament therein surpass in beauty.

A large number of Jain temples of the same age and style as those on mount Abu were built in an old area round about Sirohi. There are extensive remains of Jain temples found at Chandrivarī. Their pillars are so highly ornamented in details and varieties that no two pillars are exactly alike. The existence of a large number of Jain temples of this place is also known from the various Jain *Tirthaṅkara*. The beautifully carved fane at Mişpur between Abu and Sirohi seems to be of the same age as the temple of Tejapāla. At Ajhārī, the Jain temple of Mahāvīra is comparatively modern, but the door frames of some of the cells are carved and are certainly old and probably, they belong to the twelfth century A.D. The pillars and arches of the Jain temple of Śikhaṇḍha at Jhārd resemble in style those of Vimala's temple. The antiquity of this temple is further confirmed by an inscription of 1141 A.D. on a large slab in antechamber referring to the reign of the Paramāra king Dhārdvarya.¹

1. *Gazetteer of Sirohi State*, p. 248.

2. *Ibid.*,

Besides, there are other Jain temples of this time in this area. At Nadia, there is a Jain temple of Mahāvīra which is said to be more than nine hundred years old. The outer porch is small, plain and undecorated and the interior is very similar to that of the shrine of Jātrōḥ.¹ The Jain temples of Jhābolī² and Mungachālī³ also belong to the eleventh and twelfth centuries A.D. as known from the inscriptions found in respective temples. The oldest portion of the structure of the Jain temple of Sarsabhavanātha at Kojūrā dates probably from the twelfth century A.D., but many additions and alterations have been made in the intervening period. The inscription engraved on the *gadhāmūlapa* says us that the temple was originally consecrated to Pārśvanātha.⁴ The temple at Or belongs to the twelfth century as is known from the inscriptions. This was originally dedicated to Mahāvīra and not to Pārśvanātha as it is found today.⁵ There are two temples namely Ādinātha and Śītanātha of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries at Vagiā as is known from the inscriptions of the temples.⁶ From the inscription, it is also clear that the Jain temple of Palahī also belongs to the twelfth century A.D. These temples have undergone repairs from time to time and, therefore, the original structure is not easily distinguishable. The temples of the Sivoli region resemble the Abo group of temples in their general plan and style. Of course, the elaborate carving and rich details are not there.

A large number of Jain monuments were built in Rajasthan in the reign of early Chauhāna rulers. From the Bijaolia Rock inscription,⁷ dated 1170 A.D., it is clear that the ancestors of Lollaka built Jain temples at Todaraisingh, Bagherā, Naraina, Narvara and Ajmer. Lollaka himself constructed a temple of Pārśvanātha at Bijaulia and surrounded it with seven small temples. The existing temples cannot in fact be the same as those constructed by Lollaka as they are inferior in workmanship and look quite modern. No Jain temples of the Chauhāna period are noticed at Bagherā, Todaraisingh and Naraina, but the sculptures discovered there give some idea of the Chauhāna art. In the beginning, it was rather rustic but gradually, it became more elegant in the twelfth century A.D.

1. *A Gazetteer of Sirohi State*, 248.

3. *Ibid.*, 1906-07, p. 26.

5. *Ibid.*, p. 59.

7. *Ibid.*, p. 64.

2. *PRAS.*, vol., 1905-06, p. 48.

4. *Ibid.*, 1916-17, p. 62.

6. *Ibid.*, p. 65.

8. *Id.*, XXIV, p. 84.

Among the existing Jaina monuments of this period, the principal monument is the Dhāl-dināḥ Jhauparī.¹ It was converted into a mosque in the twelfth century A.D. There are very strong traditions² among the Jains of its being a Jaina temple. The head of a Jaina image found in the excavations of this place strengthens the view of its being a Jaina temple.³ The discovery of nine or ten Jaina marble images in 1856 A.D. bearing the inscriptions of the twelfth century A.D. in the immediate neighbourhood of Dhāl-dināḥ Jhauparī may prove that they originally belonged to this building.⁴ Besides, this building resembles the Jaina temples of the same period at Abu. The early European writers such as Ton,⁵ Fergusson⁶ etc. supposed it to be the Jaina temple which was converted into a mosque by the Muslim rulers. From the inscriptions of the Jhauparī, it is known that it was the College building constructed by Vigraharāja. The Jaina sources⁷ inform us that Vigraharāja constructed several Jaina monasteries, and he is also said to have hoisted a flag over Rājavihāra which most probably was this Sarvasamādhāna. It seems to be a Jaina college used for higher education. Not only the study of Jaina scriptures but also the study of other branches of learning, such as drama and poetry were pursued. In this way, we may account for the drama of Vigraharāja inscribed here.

This building is 18½ feet by 57½ feet. The screen wall of it is 18½ feet long, 1½ feet thick and rises to a height of 56 feet. It is a high and noble style of art and consists of seven arches. The central arch is 22 feet and 5 inches and the remaining arches are all 13 feet 5 inches. After the central porch, there is a vast pillared hall 248 feet long by 40 feet wide, covered by a flat recessed roof which is divided into nine octagonal compartments corre-

1. The name Dhāl-dināḥ Jhauparī is not an original one but given in the time of Marichika because the *palanis* began to assemble here to celebrate the Urs anniversary which lasted for two days and a half.

2. This temple is said to have been built by Vramadeva kākā in celebration of the Jaina festival Pancha Rāyāṁ Mahānavra in 669 A.D. (V.S. 717) at a cost of seven lakhs of rupees. The foundation stone was laid by the Jaina Bhadrāśoka Śrī Visvanandajī.

3. In the Jaina temple of Dharmadatta at Ajmer is a record which states that the building was completed on *Māghshukla* 9th Śukravat 1132.

3. ARMA., 1918.

4. JASB., VII, p. 51.

5. *Annals and Antiquities of Rajasthan*, II, pp. 890-900.

6. *History of Indian and Eastern Architecture*, p. 263.

7. GOS., LXXVI, P. 370.

ponding with the seven arches of the screen wall and two corners of the cloisters. In this hall, there are two rows of columns and seventy pillars. These pillars are elegant in sculpture. The ceiling is supported by quadruple range of columns which are unique in design. The ornaments are very complex. There may be forty columns, but no two of them are alike. The ornaments of the base are peculiar both in form and execution. They are surrounded by the lozenges. The projections from the various parts of the shaft with the small niches still contain the statues. Here and there are found the richly carved cornices. The capitals are at once strong and delicate.

Jaina temples of this period are also found at several places in Marwar. There is a group of sixteen temples at Nādlāi and most of them belong to the Jains. The Jaina temple of Nemindā situated on the top and the Ādiśvara temple at the bottom of the hill probably belong to the eleventh century. This supposition is based on the style of the pillars and the inscriptions discovered in these two temples. From the study of the inscriptions of the temple of Ādinātha, it is clear that it originally belonged to Mahāvira.¹ The Jaina temple of Kekind is dedicated to Pārśvanātha. Excepting the ceiling of the *śikharamūḍha* and a few pillars, everything is modern. The former is a twelfth century's work and the latter belongs to the time of the inscription of 1602 A.D. engraved on the pillar of the hall. The antiquity of this temple is further determined by a small inscription of V. S. 1230 mused on the old pedestal of the image of the Tirthankara in the *śrine*.²

At Sandhor, there is an old mosque, which according to its two Sanskrit inscriptions, was originally a Jaina temple. The inscription of 1222 A.D. records the erection of a *manḍapa* by a Śaigrapati named Hasiśchandra. The other inscription of 1265 A.D. speaks of certain repairs done to *śatubhāgī* in the temple of Mahāvira.³ There is a monument known as Topakūṭ at Jalor which seems to have been constructed out of the materials of the one Hindu temple and three different Jaina temples namely Ādinātha, Mahāvira and Pārśvanātha as known from the inscriptions. These temples were in existence in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. The temple of Pārśvanātha was constructed by Kumārapāla, the Chālukyas ruler, in the mixed style.⁴

1. PRAS., vol., 1906-09, p. 43.

2. Ibid., 1910-11, p. 36-37.

3. PRAS., vol., 1907-08, p. 34.

4. Ibid., p. 35.

The temple of Mahāvīra of Chāṇerī situated at the foot of hills consists of a shrine, a closed hall, an antechamber and an open porch attached thereto. In front of the latter are the open hall and the entrance porch with the rows of cells running along on three sides. Above the basement mouldings on the exterior are the windows, the perforated screens with balconies projecting and running allround the antechamber, the closed hall and the shrine. These wall mouldings are undoubtedly old, probably as old as the eleventh century; but the spire, open hall and the entrance porch are of later times.¹

At Phalodi, there is a temple of Pārśvanātha which belongs to the twelfth century A.D. In front of the shrine, on each side, is a white marble slab with an inscription on it. One of these speaks of a gift of Chaudhā together with *Sri Chitrakastipalāphara* in the temple of Pārśvanātha at Phalaradhikā in 1164 A.D.² At Surapur also, a Jaina temple of this time is found. An inscription of 1182 A.D. incised on the left pillar says that it was originally dedicated to Neminātha. It further informs us that pillars of the porch were erected by Suhaya, wife of Dhāhāḍa.³

At Sangner near Jaipur, there is also a very beautiful Jaina temple known as Sīghrī kṛ Mandira. Who this Sīghrī was, is not known. BARDHAKAR holds that this temple does not appear to be older than the fifteenth century A.D.⁴ But this view does not appear to be correct; because there is an inscription of 934 A.D. on *bandhvastha* of the main shrine in the second half of the temple.⁵ This definitely proves that the temple belongs to the tenth century A.D. Further, this temple may be compared with the temples of Abu built at this time for its deep beautiful carvings and the style of pillars. There are also the three stone images with the inscriptions of the eleventh and twelfth centuries A.D. placed in the temple.

The door of the temple is beautifully carved with dwarfs, elephants, *Simurṣ* and *Simurṣ* and the *Tirbhakaras*. Then comes the *Sabhitamandapa* or open porch. There are two courtyards on both the sides with twelve pillars. Between the two pillars, there is a beautiful *bandhvastha*. On the capital of the pillar is standing the figure of *Simurṣ* holding child, flower, some times drum and *Simurṣ*. These *Simurṣ* are very skilfully carved. Then,

1. PRAS., vol. I, p. 59.

2. Ibid., 1909, p. 60.

3. Ibid., 1911-12, p. 53.

4. Ibid., 1909-10, p. 47.

5. संवत् १०११ लिखित मं ० तेजा दिव्यमाचार्य पूर्णकण्ड ।

comes the entrance of the second *Kabhadranajaga*. It is also carved with *aparnis*, *devas* and peacocks. In the hall, there is a central shrine most beautifully carved with scrolls, lotus flowers, creepers and elephants pouring water over the heads of the *Trikasikaras*. *Haridra hemimantals* are also found on the three sides. Besides, there are nineteen subsidiary cells in a row in which the images are placed. The main shrine and these subsidiary cells are surmounted by the *Jihvamar*.

There is a temple of Śiva near the temple of Bālāji at Purañā Gṛāṇa about three miles from the city of Jaipur. It was originally a Jain temple built in the twelfth century A.D. An undated inscription in the characters of the twelfth century A.D. on a lintel of one of the arches of this temple contains five verses and ends the Jain *Nāthas*. It also mentions two names of Jain *Srīrāhas* belonging to Pashkara Jīvi. An inscription of 1146 A.D. on another lintel mentions the names of Ācāryas and their pupils.¹

Jhānpatan is famous as a city of old temples. Among them, the Jain temple of Santanātha is well known. It is said to have been built by Sītha Pīpā in 1496 A.D. and its installation ceremony was performed by Bhīrvadeva Sūri.² The present temple is the rebuilding of an older temple. The shrine and *Jihvamar* are old and in the newly constructed *mandapa*, a few old Hindu figures have been found.³ The antiquity of this temple is further proved by the inscriptions of the eleventh and twelfth centuries engraved on funeral memorials termed '*nāthakīrtis*' of Jain priests.⁴ At Agra, there are two exquisite Jain temples of about the twelfth century A.D. The main structure of the one with a mutilated statue of Pārśvanātha in the sanctum is still standing, though in a precarious condition. The other temple has practically disappeared but the large statue of Mahāvīra, which is too heavy to be transported, still stands on a pedestal; and round about, there are signs of the foundations which reveal the plan of a pretty big Jain temple.

At Lachora about ten miles west of Jaipur, Śrībhakt and Rājadhara, the princes of the king tāgara are known to have built the temple of Pārśvanātha in the eleventh century A.D.⁵ Actually, this temple belongs to this period as known from the study of its architecture. The style of archi-

1. *ASIRMA.*, 1920-21, Inscriptions, Nos. 3-4.

2. *Archana*, VIII, p. 125.

3. *Archaeological Survey of Cunningham*, II, pp. 263-67.

4. *Annals and Antiquities of Rajasthan*, II, p. 702.

5. *NIL.*, 2543.

terrace in the lower part of the temple is purely of South Indian Hindu type, while the upper part is of North-west Indian type. The *Samadhistā*, which is elaborately carved and richly decorated, stands very close to the courtyard and in front of the main temple. At four corners of the enclosure are four small temples of good workmanship. An artificial tree known as *Kalpavriksha* with fruits is very carefully and artistically preserved within the enclosure.

REVIVAL OF JAINA ARCHITECTURE FROM THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY: Most of the buildings described above belong to the great age of Jaina architecture which extended upto about 1300 A.D. or perhaps a little longer. Then there was a pause for more than a century, and after that started the revival in the Jaina architecture from the fifteenth century A.D. Most of the Jaina temples of this period are the copies of the early Jaina temples of Abu and Sangamner. In doing so, they lost the purity and elegance that characterized the earlier example. They did not possess the magnificence, grandeur of plan and the wealth of details. Besides, these temples show the influence of the Muslim style of architecture. Most of them are surmounted by the bulbous dome of the Muslims, and the openings almost invariably take the form of Muhammedan foliated pointed arch.

The temple of Sadri built in the valley of natural beauty belongs to this period. It was erected by Rājā Kumbhā. It is the most complicated and extensive Jaina temple in Rajasthan. It is nearly a square, 200 feet by 225 feet, exclusive of the projections on each face. In the centre stands the great shrine with four niches, in each of which is placed a statue of Ādinātha. Above this are four other niches, similarly occupied, opening on the terraced roofs of the building. Near the four angles of the court are four smaller shrines, and around them, or on each side of them, are twenty domes, supported by about 400 columns; four of these domes—the central ones of each group—are three storeys in height, and tower over the others; and one—that facing the principal entrance—is supported by the very unusual number of sixteen columns and is 36 feet in diameter, the others being only 24 feet. Light is admitted to the building by four uncovered courts, and the whole is surrounded by a range of cells, many of them now unoccupied, each of which has a pyramidal roof of its own.

Besides the twelve in the central *śikharas* there are eightysix cells of very varied form and size surrounding the interior, and all these facades more

or less adorned with sculpture. Most of these cells contain the images of the Tirthankaras. The lofty basement and the great elevation of the principal domes produce a favourable impression from the external sight. But the greatest defect of this building is the want of ornamentation on their exterior faces which beautify the Hindu temples.

"The immense number of parts in the building, and their general smallness, prevents its laying claim to anything like architectural grandeur; but their variety, their beauty of detail—no two pillars in the whole building being exactly alike—the grace with which they are arranged, the useful admixture of domes of different heights with flat ceilings and the mode in which the light is introduced, combine to produce an excellent effect. Indeed, I know of no other building in India, of the same class, that leaves so pleasing an impression or affords so many hints for the graceful arrangement of columns in an interior".¹

CHATURMUKHA AND SAMAVASARAN STYLE OF ARCHITECTURE: The *Chaturmukha* or *Chaturmukha* style of Jain architecture also started during this period. It seems to be an imitation of Chaturmukha Sivalinga of the Hindus. It denotes four images of a Tirthankara placed on one and the same pedestal back to back so as to face the four cardinal directions. It therefore presupposes that not only the sanctum in which such a *chaturmukha* is installed but also the enclosing wall should have four doors facing the four images.

Such a *chaturmukha* type of temple was built by Poravāda Mahājana Dhanod Sēpha in 1442 A.D. at Ranpur during the reign of Kumbhārkarapā. The shrine in this temple is occupied by a quadruple image and is open on the four sides, each facing an image. There is also a similar shrine on the upper storey accessible by four doors. The lower and the principal shrine has no closed hall but only a small porch called *mukhamandapa*. Further, there is an open assembly hall on a lower level, approached by a flight of stairs on each side. Outside this flight of stairs is an open porch and above it is a *natamandapa*. Facing the sides of each of the *mukhamandapas* of the principal shrine is a large subsidiary shrine and facing each *natamandapa* is a smaller subsidiary shrine. Around these four shrines are four groups of domes resting on about 420 columns. The central ones of each group—four in

1. *History of Indian and Eastern Architecture*, pp. 241-242.

number—are three storeys high and tower over the others of the same group, and one of the central domes, that facing the principal entrance is double, having a second dome over the inner and supported by the very unusual number of sixteen columns. The sides of the temple between the larger subsidiary shrines and the entrances are occupied by ranges of cells for images, each with a pyramidal roof of its own but without any partitioning walls.¹

There is a temple of this type also at Kurabgarh. It faces the east and consists of a *śikharamūḍha* and a shrine. The former is accessible on three sides from east, north and south. The latter has four doors, and in the centre of the interior are the remains of a pedestal with four pillars at the corners obviously a canopy over it. There is no doubt that it was a *Chaturmukha* temple though the image placed on the pedestal cannot be traced.² The Śrīṅgṛa Chavadi temple at Chitor is a Jaina shrine. It is said to have been built by the Jaina treasurer of Rāṇā Kumbha. Originally, it had four porches and the entrances like all *Chaturmukha* temples. Two of these on the east and south were removed, and the entrances built up with the coarse jāli work.³

There is a great *Chaturmukha* temple of Adinātha built in the middle of the fifteenth century A.D. at Abu. It is three storeyed in height with open domed porches on four sides. It has seventy six pillars.⁴ One such temple was also built in the city of Sindhi during the victorious reign of Mahāśāhīrājā Rāja Siṃha, son of Śūratasīṃha in, 1577 A.D.⁵

At Kurabgarh, there is a temple known as *Collet* temple. It is so called because it is surrounded by a round walled enclosure facing east. It was not *Chaturmukha* but a *Samantavarana* temple. This is clearly seen from the different classes of gods and goddesses sculptured at the corners of the walls near the top of the interior.⁶

The Jaina tower known as Kirtistambha situated on the hills of Chitor is one of the most remarkable buildings. It is about 80 feet in height and is composed of eight storeys. It has a pavilion on the top which probably enshrined a *Chaturmukha* image in it. It was built by Purnasiddha of the Bagheravla caste during the reign of Rāṇā Kumbhadevārāja and is full of decorations.

1. A.S.I. An. Report, 1907-8, pp. 206-213.

2. PRAS., vol., 1908-09, p. 40.

3. Ibid., 1903-04, p. 42.

4. A History of Indian and Eastern Architecture, p. 43.

5. PRAS., vol., 1905-06, p. 47.

6. Ibid., 1908-09, p. 40.

OTHER MEDIEVAL JAINA TEMPLES: The great Jaina temples of Chintāmaṇi Pārivaṇātha, Rishabhadeva, Śāntiātha, Saṃbhavanātha and Mahāvīra in the fort of Jaisalmer constructed one after another in a period between the twelfth and the fifteenth centuries are excellent. From a *prashasti* of the *Paścātmakacharitra* written in 1218 A.D., it is known that Jaradkhara, son of Kāhemanilkhara, constructed the temple of Pārivaṇātha at Jaisalmer.¹ The temple of Pārivaṇātha, which is the oldest and most beautiful, required from time to time. The most important part of the temple is the shrine containing the image of Tīrthaṅkara. The four walls of the shrine are beautifully carved with animals and human figures. Over the roof of this particular shrine is built a highly decorated *śikhara* invariably crowned by an *amūḍaka*. Above the *amūḍaka* is the water pot containing a lotus flower. There is a porch and *bhūgaṇḍapā* in front of this shrine. Facing this porch, there is the *netanamandapa*, octagonal in shape, which is decorated with themes of Jaina and Hindu mythology.

Profuse ornamentations in the shape of foliage, flowers, birds and human figures were used in decorating every part of the pillar, arch, finial or bracket. There hang the graceful full blown lotus-shaped pendants from the centre on the ceiling of the *Netanamandira* dome. Over the columns of the porch are the bracket capitals which support the architraves of the dome and the struts supporting the gallery. Between the bracket capitals and under the struts are placed beautifully ornamented *torṇas* shaped figure forming a kind of pierced arch. The surrounding courtyard is enclosed by a double colonnade of smaller finely carved and ornamented ceilings. Behind it, there stands a range of cell, and each of it contains the cross legged seated Tīrthaṅkara.

Before the entrance gate of the temple is the porch supported by decorated columns. Just over the *chhatras* at both corners in the friezes of the porch are two figures of elephants. The carving perforated in the architraves, *langura* parapet and especially the *śikhara* or dome over the porch are elegant and graceful. The greatest attraction of these temples is the *torṇas* that stands on a pair of decorated columns in front of the entrance porch of Pārivaṇātha temple. The columns are ornamented with lotus, animals, mukhas and adorned with sculptures which seem almost instinct with life and

1. *Jainamera Kā Sūchāpatra*, pp. 116 and 37.

motion. There is a wonderful grace in these sculptures representing different gods and *apsaras*.

The Jaina temples of Godhīs and Chaudhāris at Maroṭha claim to have been founded in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries respectively. These temples have undergone repairs from time to time but still some original portion of the structure in both the temples supports the date ascribed to them. The decoration on the ceiling of the temple of Chaudhāris and the pillars of the temple of Godhīs are of the type prevalent in the fourteenth century A.D.

The Jaina temples of Bhāṇḍāsara Chintāmaṇi and Nemindāha of Bikaner also belong to this age. The temple of Bhāṇḍāsara was founded by a rich merchant named Bhāṇḍā. This temple is also known as Sumatinātha temple. Its shrine is round in form. It is surmounted by two storeys, each opening into four balconies and interconnected by narrow stairs. *Alandapas*, galleries and porches surround the shrine. At the top, there is the shrine with its strings and upstirrings of decorative small *śikharas* and its gilded flag staff. The temple is built of yellow Jaipur stone. Both the motifs of Rajput and Mughal architecture are found beautifully mixed in the construction of this temple.

From the artistic point of view, the Chintāmaṇi temple is superior to that of Bhāṇḍāsara temple. It is also made of yellow Jaipur stone. Its construction work started in the time of Rāva Bika but it was completed shortly after his death in 1505 A.D. Originally, the shrine and the chief *mandapa* were constructed. But thirty years later, it was enlarged by another hall and an open front porch and two small side porches. The substructure, the columns, the capitals, the domes and the *śora* roofs seem to have been borrowed from Gujāratī temples, while the rich arabesques, floral decorations, *lozenge* and *kanak* friezes panels and occasional elephant figures reveal a development which had its origin in a renaissance of medieval Hindu architecture. The meaning of the *paśa* and the foliage capitals of the multiple type is lost and ten small carved brackets rise in a quite inorganic manner from the sides of the capitals. The spire is stout and heavy. When in 1583 A.D., Rājāsūta deposited the Jaina idols recovered from Sindh theory in a vault in the Chintāmaṇi court, another Jaina temple of Ādinātha was built near it.

The most beautiful Jaina temple at Bikaner is the temple of Neminātha. It has a shrine surmounted by a high *śikhara*. There are elegantly carved *amūlaka* and *śaśis* over the *śikhara*. It has a closed *mandapa* with lateral doors and an open *arīhamandapa* accessible from three sides. It is richly decorated with various motifs. Their *śikhara* is decorated with eight beautiful stringa. The entrance of the shrine is beautifully carved. The lintel is decorated with several friezes, a cornice and a set of five half engaged niches enclosing divine images. The bottom of the door jambs is protected by *dharmapālas* attended by minor goddings. The roof is supported by brackets decorated with dancing *apantās*. Other motifs such as scrolls, creeper spirals, the diamond lozenge and the use of four and eight petalled star flower were used for ornamentation.

UNDERGROUND TEMPLES: The underground temples also began to be built for the protection of the images against the iconoclastic activities of the Muslims. Such a temple was built and images were placed in it at Chāndakhehī in the princely state of Kotah by Krishnadāsa, a Begharavāla merchant, in 1689 A.D., during Aurangzeb's reign. There was a danger of its destruction, therefore, it was built in an unique form. The main temple is underground and the entrance to it is through a narrow passage. No arrangement was made for admitting light in it. Above it there is another temple but the image placed in it has not been installed according to the Śāstric injunctions. Apparently it seems to be a temple if not a shrine. But the object of its construction was to protect the underground temple from the Muslim destruction.¹ Such an underground portion is also found in some other Jaina temples at different places. The main aim was to place the images in them for protection from the Muslim iconoclasm if such a situation arose.

MODERN JAINA ARCHITECTURE: After the decline of the Mughals when law-and-order was established during British period, Jaina temples again began to appear. They were constructed mostly on the model of old Jaina temples. The features were the old dome, *śikhara*, pillars and also the other motifs for the decoration. Though the style of these new Jaina temples is rich and ornate, it has lost much of its original purity and simplicity.

1. *Koṭā Rājya Kā-Itihāsa*, p. 210.

Besides, sometimes, too much of modernity also disfigures the latest Jaina temples. Then, there is also the crude colour washing and painting. Such temples are found in a large number in the important cities of Rajasthan such as Jaipur, Kota, Bikaner, Udaipur and Jodhpur.

2. JAINA ICONOGRAPHY

It is somehow difficult to determine the time when the Jainas started the practice of the worship of images. Even in the Indus Valley civilisation, some images supposed to be Jaina have been discovered. But we are on the safe ground about the worship of images among the Jainas from the Nanda period onwards. The Hāthigrahpā inscription of King Kharavela records that he took back from Pāṭaliputra the Jaina idol which was carried off by one of the Nanda kings from Kalinga.¹ There are two nude mutilated statues without symbols in the Patna museum. One of them possesses the polish of Mauryan age and may be ascribed to the third century B.C. and the other on stylistic grounds to the second century B.C.² After that, image worship grew more and more popular and elaborate.

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF JAINA IMAGES: The image of Jina must be skillfully prepared so that it may satisfy the artistic thirst of the devotee and should enable to imagine the infinite through a visible form. According to the traditional and historic convention, the distinguishing features of a Jaina figure are its long hanging arms, the *devotas* symbol, the nude form, youthful body and nudity. The other peculiarities of the Jaina iconography are serenity, dignity, calm, rhythm, proportion and restraint. Generally, all the images except the very early ones have a *śikha* or symbol which differentiates them from each other.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE KUSHĀNA AND GUPTA JAINA IMAGES: The Jaina images of the Kushāna and Gupta periods have been discovered at Mathura. The distinctive symbols are not found on the images of the Kushāna period. But in the case of the images of Pārsva, a snake canopy behind the head of the figure is noticed. This enables us to identify the Jina without any difficulty. But with regard to the other Jinas, we are in darkness unless the inscriptions help us. The *Kaṭyāyana* gives a list of all the

1. JBORS., III, p. 458.

2. Ibid., Vr. 1937, pp. 130-132.

twenty-four *devdharas* for twenty-four Jinas. In the sculpture of the Kushāna period, the figure of Tirthankara is not seen attended by either a Yaksha or Yakshini. It seems that the *devdharas* as well as the Yaksha figures remained separate for long.

When confusion as to how to distinguish one Jaina image from another having a stereotyped appearance arose, it probably became necessary to mark the images with their respective symbols. In this way, the practice of associating the *devdharas* started in the Gupta period. Besides, the figures of the Yaksha and Yakshini also became necessary adjuncts. Other motifs were a trilinear umbrella, a drum player surrounding it, and a pair of elephants on two sides of the umbrella and a *dharmachakra* symbol attended by a pair of other bulls or deer form the parts of the Jaina sculpture. Evidently this type of development in the Jaina iconography is due to external influence of contemporary iconographic types.

METAL IMAGES: Images are made of both metal and stone. Metal images are important from the artistic point of view, and they can be preserved also for a long time. Inscriptions on them can be inscribed clearly without any difficulty. Their construction does not cost so much and hence they were made in large numbers. Their smallness of size enables the people to carry them from one place to another easily if the circumstances demand it.

The construction of the metal images may be traced to very early times in Rajasthan. From the poet Samayasundara of the early seventeenth century A.D., it is known that Chandragupta Maurya and his great grandson Samprati installed the golden images of Pitravandika and Padmagrabika respectively in the Jaina temple of Ghudghati. Whether we believe in this late evidence or not, we are on the sure grounds of the existence of metal images from the seventh century A.D. On one pair of the images of Kishabha-deva discovered at Vasunagarh is incised an inscription dated 687 A.D., and it is the earliest image so far known to us in Rajasthan. Along with it, many old brass images have been also found out.

In 1582 A.D., the combined efforts of Rajsingha and of his minister Karnachandra succeeded in obtaining from Akbar no less than 1070 Jaina metal images which had been looted in 1576 A.D. during the capture of Achalgarh and the defeat of Surjansingha of Sikohi by Tufāz-khan. At

present they are deposited in an underground vault of the Chintamani temple at Dhauar. Among these idols, there are a number of masterpieces in bronze, copper and brass. Some are of the ninth century while others belong to the period from eleventh to the fifteenth century A.D.

There are eleven big metal images weighing about 142 or 144 maunds in the Jain temple of Chaumukhañ at Achhalgarh near Abu. Each among these images weighs about 140 or 144 maunds. These images were brought from Dungarpur and installed at this place in V.S. 1566. The metal images with such a huge weight are not generally found anywhere.

DIFFERENT TYPES OF METAL IMAGES: In comparison with stone images, it is easy to devise varieties in metal images. The types of metal images are many; and the principal varieties are (1) single image both in *Pastāvāna* and *Khadgāna* (shak), (2) two images (dvitūhī), (3) three images (Tritūhī), (4) five images (Pañchatūhī), (5) twenty four images of the Tirhañkara (Chauluk), (6) Nandīvaradvīpa, (7) Saddhīpratiṃā, (8) Bāvanachāyālayapratīṃā, Ashṭakavālīśīra pratiṃā etc. In the Chaulukī, the main image of Tirhañkara is found in the centre while the remaining Tirhañkara are found around him. Such a beautiful metal image of Chaulukī is found in the temple of Chaulharis at Jaipur. The elephants are pouring water over the main figure of the Tirhañkara and below, the *aparas* are dancing. The *ekīyas* of *Nandīśvar* are also shown. There is an image of Bāvanachāyālayapratīṃā of 16th A.D. in the shape of a plate in the Jain temple of Lopakarama's Pāndya, at Jaipur. In the centre of the plate is a Nandīvaradvīpa and in its four corners, a group of thirteen images in Pañchāsara is displayed.

WORSHIP OF *YANTRAS*: Jains also used to worship the *yantras* made of copper and brass. Some are square but most of them are circular. Both big and small *yantras* are used. The inscription is inscribed round the *yantra*. The installation of *yantras* from the thirteenth century onwards is known both from inscriptions as well as from the literary evidence. Even earlier than that, they might have been in vogue as known from the *pratikṣāpāṭha* of Jayasinhāchārya which is said to be of the tenth century A.D.

STONE IMAGES: In a period between the eighth and the thirteenth century A.D., big and excellent Jain images of stone were made. Their design and execution are perfect. The facial expressions, the graceful poses and the various moods are chiselled in an exquisite manner. And no wonder,

all these motifs are attractive and fascinating. Two very beautiful images of Neminātha of the eighth or ninth century A.D. have been discovered at Narbad. Stone images of Jaina Tirthankaras of the tenth century A.D. found out at Naraina are of high artistic merit. One excellent image of Sahasrakapachairyā-laya with the inscription of 949 A.D. is noticed in some Jaina temples of Jaipur. It is square in form and there are one hundred and eight images in a group of twenty-seven in each corner.

Stone Jaina images of the eleventh and twelfth centuries have been discovered in different parts of Rajasthan. At Bhanghur in Alwar territory, there is a colossal Jaina image of twenty feet in height called Nam Guṇḍī of the eleventh century A.D.¹ At Bahādurpur in Alwar, three life size Jaina figures standing upright and naked under a banyan tree on the Baghold embankment have been found.² A colored Jaina figure thirteen feet nine inches high with a canopy of two feet six inches over the head supported by two elephants stands at Pāṇnagara in Alwar. The whole height of the sculpture is sixteen feet three inches and its breadth is six feet.³ Three colored images of the eleventh century A.D. built by a Rājput Saradhā are found at Shergarh in Kotah State where both Jainism and Bôthamannal religion flourished side by side.⁴ The same images of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries in the sitting pose are also found at Sanganer, Baghera, Mîrôtha and in the area of Sirôhi and Chîr. A sandstone sculpture of Jivantasāmī measuring about five feet three inches in height and two feet in width discovered at Khimisar, near Nagaur is noteworthy. This sculpture represents Mahāvîra prior to the reannation. From the dress and ornaments and the attendants below, it has been dated between the tenth and eleventh centuries.

Jaina images of the mediæval period are not so fine but still some of them are important from the artistic point of view. In the Jaina temple of Adalabadī at Nôgradī, there is a seated image of Sārinakha ten feet in height. In point of size, finish and skill of execution, the image is a marvellous one in this area and, therefore, the temple is known as Adalabadī. From the inscription on the image it is known that Sôrang constructed this image in 1437 A.D. during the reign of Mahārājā of Kumbhâkara. Two excellen

1. *History of Indian And Eastern Architecture*, p. 250.

2. *Archæological Survey of India*, XX, p. 116.

3. *Archæological Survey of India*, XX, 125.

4. *Kotā Rājya Kā Itihāsa*, p. 125.

Chaubisi images of white marble decorated with *maugrikhar*, Indras, *apants* and animals are placed in a Jaina temple of Jaipur.

Deities: Besides Tirthaṅkaras, the Jains worshipped several other deities such as Sarasvatī, Ambikā and Padmīdevatī. In order to distinguish them from the Hindu deities, they are associated with the Tirthaṅkaras. Generally, the image of Tirthaṅkara is found on the crown of the deity with whom she is related. In their execution, the śāstric conventions have been observed but the art has not been sacrificed. It reveals highly artistic skill, balance, pose, proportion and expression.

There are three varieties of the image of Sarasvatī such as (1) two armed (2) four armed and multi-armed varieties. The chief distinguishing features are the book and the vehicle swan which is sometimes replaced by a peacock. One beautiful metal image of Sarasvatī probably of the seventh or eighth century A.D. found in a Jaina temple of Pindavtilā in Sindh State stands on a lotus and holds a book in her left hand and lotus in her right hand.¹ A beautiful black stone image of Sarasvatī brought from Arthupa in Baraswara state is now preserved in the Rajasrana Museum. It has four hands holding the *śrut* and the book in her two left hands and rosary and lotus in the two right hands. The *makara* of the goddess is surmounted by a small figure of Jina. A Jaina image of Sarasvatī dated 1145 A.D. discovered at Naraina is also important from the artistic point of view. There is an image of Sarasvatī of the thirteenth century A.D. in the temple of Mahāvīra at Ajmer and also in the temple of Bābā at Ajmer. A small marble image of this goddess at Achalgarh holds *śrut* and the book in the two upper hands and the rosary and *kaumodakā* in the two lower ones. Its mutilated sculpture at Bayalā seems to have held the same four objects but is riding a peacock. The beautiful figure of Sarasvatī found at Patli in the Bikaner state is an excellent specimen of medieval Indian sculpture. It is of white polished marble and is in a benevolent mood. It has four hands.

The deity of Ambikā is also worshipped among the Jains. Her vehicle is the lion and seems to be associated with the first Tirthaṅkara Ādinātha. The goddess is seen holding a child in her arms. There is a brass image of Ambikā of the tenth century A.D. in a Jaina temple of Sadri.

1. PRAS., no., 1905-06, p. 48.

She is holding a child in her left arm while there is a *amlaṇḍa* in right arm. Besides at Mokṣinā in the Sūśān temple, a mighty image of Deṇḍi of the twelfth century A.D. is sitting on a lion. From an iconographic point of view, it is closely related to the Jaina images of Ambikā. It is also a masterpiece of sculpture. The stone images of Ambikā of the twelfth century A.D. are preserved in the Jaina temple of Bagheri. The three Jaina images of this goddess seated on lion placed in the Jaina temple of Narmā are remarkable from the artistic point of view. One beautiful metal image of Ambikā of the fourteenth century A.D. is in the temple of Lūpakarapaj at Jaipur. It is sitting on a lion holding a child in her arms.

Padmāvatī seems to be associated with Pārśvanātha because very often, she is found along with him. The stone images of Padmāvatī of the twelfth century A.D. are found at Bagheri. One such metal image of 1194 A.D. in the temple of Śīrāmaṇḍyā at Jaipur is holding a child in each of her hands. Above it, there is also the figure of Pārśvanātha. A beautiful stone image of Padmāvatī in the temple of Lūpakarapaj Pāṇḍyā, Jaipur, is in a peaceful posture holding four objects in the four hands.

Besides, the images of other female deities are found at several places in Rajasthan. There is a stone image of Brāhmi in the Jaina temple of Mahāvīra at Bagheri. A deity sitting on a buffalo is preserved in the Jaina temple of Lūpakarapaj Pāṇḍyā at Jaipur. It holds a sword, a bow, an arrow and an axe in her four left hands, and *śaṅkha*, *chakra* and two other objects in her four right hands. This is evidently the influence of Tantrism and as such the deity is clearly the form of Mahiṣāsuramardinī.

Statues of the mothers of the Tirthaṅkars are also found in Rajasthan. An image of Marudevī in the temple of Rishabha was erected in 1177 A.D. during the reign of Devakata at Jaisalmer. Another such image of Marudevī seated on an elephant in the temple of Rishabhadeva is found at Dhūleva in Udaipur.

Among the male deities besides the Tirthaṅkars, the Yakshas are important. An image of a male deity of the eighteenth century A.D. riding a pigeon and holding an axe in the left hand and a parrot in the right hand is found in the Jaina temple of Lūpakarapaj Pāṇḍyā at Jaipur. There are bangles in his arms and earrings in his ears. On the head, there is a crown. Another

male deity riding an elephant with folded hands of the same period is also found in the above temple. These images are evidently Yakshas.

STATUES OF ĀCHĀRYAS: Not only the *patilakari* but even the statues of the famous Āchāryas are seen in the Jain temples, and they are worshipped by the devotees. The statues of the Āchāryas Jinastamasūri, Jinavardhacasūri and Drogdichārya of 1419 A.D. and Jinurūjasūri and Jinavarddhiasūri of 1412 A.D. are found at Delavāḍi in Mewar. One such image of Jinakakiasūri of the fourteenth century A.D. is found at Mālayas in Jaipur division. The image of Vijayasagarasūri of 1699 A.D. is noticed at Dhuleva in Udaipur state. Such images of the Āchāryas are also found in the temple of Āba. There is nothing artistic about these statues, and they do not resemble the person they claim to represent.

IMAGES OF THE DONORS AND PATRONS: The images of the goddesses as also of the Āchāryas were used for worship, but those of the donors were meant only to preserve their memory. In the temple of Ādinātha at Āba, there is a figure of Vināla riding a horse. On each of the ten statues of elephants was seated a figure in a rich *kanit* behind the driver. They represented Vināla and his family in procession to the temple. But unfortunately, the figures have been destroyed by the Muslim invaders. The images of Vasupāla and Tejapāla, the builders of the temple, are also found in Lūgavasahī temple.

HINDU GODS AND GODDESSSES: Even the images of Hindu gods and goddesses find place in Jain temples. This shows the liberality and the spirit of tolerance and catholicity of Jainism. The Hindu gods such as Rāma, Kṛṣṇa, Hanumān, Siva, Gaṇeś and Bhairava and the goddesses like Sitā, Lakṣmī, Durgā etc. were adopted by the Jains and respected by them as subordinate or secondary deities. This is the reason why Jainism has survived and continued to be popular among the non-Jains.

INSTALLATION CEREMONY OF IMAGES: The installation ceremony of images is always a grand and impressive function among the Jains. People from different places assemble at the place where it is performed. The ceremony is performed by a rich person through some Āchārya, and it lasts for about five or six days. Often it is one image that is installed, but sometimes many images are consecrated simultaneously by the same

Āchārya and donors, and then, they are distributed to several centres. This is done to curtail unnecessary expenses and also to make the ceremony magnificent and festive.

It is generally seen that in case of the early images, the inscription which is found on the pedestal is a short one. It simply mentions the names of the donor and the Āchāryas through whom it is consecrated. But in most of the images of the later times, we find a long genealogy of the Āchāryas and the donors mentioning their names and Ghoras. Such long inscriptions on the images are very useful in reconstructing the political, social and religious history of the region.

3. JAINA PLASTIC ART

The question of Jaina plastic art in very early times does not arise at all because no Jaina temples of very early date are in existence. Even those which have survived underwent repairs from time to time. It is for this reason that just a few specimens only are found belonging to the early period. These may be classified into three heads. (1) Decorations, (2) Decorative statues, (3) Narrative illustrations.

(1) DECORATIONS: The decorative patterns include scrolls, figures of animals, flowers, trees and intertwined human figures. These patterns were generally used for the ornamentation of doors, pillars and ceilings. In the temple of Vimala Vasahi at Abu, the *Kaṇṇarāśa* has been beautifully carved on the ceiling of the *sanctuary*. This aspect of Jaina art has no peculiarity of its own, and it is found elsewhere too.

(2) DECORATIVE STATUES: Statues serving as decorative purposes are also found in Rajasthan. At Ghariyāla in Marwar, there is a niche, the left half of which is engraved with an inscription and the right sculptured into the figure of a goddess seated on a lion. The carving of this figure is fine and undoubtedly old. It is after this goddess that the niche is named *Māṇḍīḍī* or *niśā*. The goddess is not a Hindu but a Jain deity as the inscription tells us that the temple was dedicated to a Jain. This figure is most probably Amāhikā.¹ The statue seems to be only decorative, and it is not worshipped.

1. ERAS, *loc. cit.*, 1006-07, p. 34.

At Varsar in Sindhi state, in the temple of Mahāvīra, there is a beautifully sculptured image of Kuber quite similar to the one we generally find in Brahmanical temples. The pillared corridor to the east of *Nakṣatramandapa* of this temple also contains a sculptured ceiling panel. The central figure of this slab is Gajalakṣmī with elephants pouring water on her.¹

At Gihāṭvā in Marwar, the most interesting sculpture is the group of figures which decorate the plinth of the open porch of the shrine. In the centre are lions each with long earlobes and heavy ear-rings. In front of the lions is a large water pot supported by two dwarfs.² These lions probably represent the individuals who built the temple. But this is a mere guess.

In the corridor behind the main shrine of the Mahāvīra temple at Ajhār in Shirohi state, there is a broken sculpture representing the *Nandīśvaradvīpa*.³ The sculptures of Nandīśvaradvīpa are also found in Jaina temples at Rupanagar,⁴ near Kishangarh and at Nāgā in Balī district. All these are decorative motifs.

In the Chaturmukha temple at Ranpur, there is a sculpture of Sammedālikhara in the large subsidiary shrine towards the north-west of the main shrine. Just opposite to it, there is another, an Aśṭpada, but left in an unfinished condition. Just outside the former (on its proper right) is a slab representing the sacred hills of Gīmar and Samuṇjaya. In the *nakṣatramandapa* on the north stands a sculpture of Sahasrakṣa.⁵

The temple of Padmāvatī at Nāgā contains an interesting sculpture in the sanctum. There is a figure of Jina, having a halo behind, in an attitude of meditation in the centre of the slab. Two canonical capped chaund beamed, one on each side with *gandhāra* and *śava* are represented as flying in air. The sides and the top are divided into a number of small niches with the remaining Tirthaṅkaras. To the right of the central figure is Ishta seated on an elephant and to its left is the goddess Ambikā. The front part of the slab under the central figure is divided into three parts. The side ones are occupied by lions and the middle contains a *śakha* supported by two deer.⁶ This sculpture is clearly a decorative piece on which much art and skill

1. PRAS., *vo.*, 1916-17, p. 71. 2. *Ibid.*, 1907-08, p. 39. 3. *Ibid.*, 1903-06, p. 49.

4. *Ibid.*, 1910-11, p. 42.

5. *Ibid.*, 1907-08, p. 49.

6. ASI An Report, 1907-08, p. 213.

7. PRAS., *vo.*, 1904-05, p. 61.

have been lavished for achieving a beautiful effect. It is not meant for worship.

In the Jaina temple of Khedda, two Jaina sculptures have been fixed on the wall, each representative, a Vīrabhadra with Chauri banners. One of these is seated on a lion throne and the other on a lion throne with the elephants standing on the two full blown lotuses.¹

In an old Jaina temple of eighth century A.D. at Chhisa, there is one sculpture built into the left part of the door of the old shrine. It represents two antique looking human figures standing under a double topped umbrellia. Besides a Jaina *Chatur* built of beautiful white round pillars is also found. The altaries carved on it are representations of the various postills of the Digambara Sect.

There is a temple of Mahāvira at Sevadi in Marwar. The figures on the outside walls of the sanctum are not profuse but are artistically carved and cannot be later than the tenth century A.D. On the south, there are three figures. The first is a Nīlga female with ear lobes perforated and bearing earrings. She holds a shield in the left hand, and there is a broken scimitar in the right hand. Her head is canopied with the hood of the snake coils of which come down to her left foot. The second figure, wearing a crown, a necklace and a waist band, stands in the attitude of Kāyotsarga in a niche decorated with side plastera. The tops of it are surmounted by two seated Jinas. The third figure is of the naked Keshavnāga holding the club in the one hand and snake in the upraised hand. On the North side also, there are three figures. The central figure is in a niche exactly in the same position as in the south. Of the remaining two, one is a female figure holding the discus in the right hand while the left hand is broken off. Under her right flow is her *śikha*, a man. Her ears are perforated and she wears earrings. The other figure is of the standing Brahmā holding a rosary in the right hand, while in the left hand, there is a *Kamandala*. He has a beard and wears Khadīyas or wooden sandals. In the closed hall, there is a figure which appears to be of some Jaina teacher. He is sitting on a throne with his right foot on a small stand. He is being thronged apparently by his disciple who has a beard. There is a *paṭi* stand behind him and another disciple is spreading a scroll of paper. The third disciple is holding

1. PIRAS, vol., 1911-12, p. 56.

his right eye closed. There are a conch and a water jug before him. The *lesana* is also noticed on the back of the teacher's left shoulder. A hand of cloth has been also used to support him in his posture. There is a manuscript in his left hand, while his right hand is half open near his chest. His neck is adorned by a close fitting tight necklace. Besides, there is also the figure of Sarasvatī in the front corridor.

The beautiful figures of the deities such as Sarasvatī and Ambikā are found carved in the Jaina temples of Aṅga. There is a beautiful figure of the goddess Sarasvatī showing the four symbols such as *śaśa*, book, rosary and the lotus in her four hands preserved in an architrave panel sculpture in the famous Vimala Vasthī temple. In this same temple, a beautiful sculpture preserving a sixteen armed form of the great goddess of learning on the ceiling is noticed. She is attended by a dancing male figure on each side. The goddess sits in *kāñchitāṅga* showing the lotus, conch, and the *varaṇa* in the right hands and the book, the book and the *kamandala* in the three left ones. All other hands along with the symbols are mutilated beyond recognition. The figure of the swan can however be seen on the pedestal. On a pillar in the temple built by Tripatha, there is a figure of Sarasvatī seated in *kāñchitāṅga* and showing the same symbols with the difference that the book in the left hand is replaced by a *kamandala*.

There is a figure of twenty armed Ambikā preserved on the ceiling of famous temple of Vimalakīṭha. Ambikā in *kāñchitāṅga* is sitting on the lion. She shows the *śaśa*, the *śaśa*, the snake, the mace, the shield, the axe, the *kamandala*, the *śaśa* and the *varaṇa* *ambikā*. The rest of the symbols cannot be identified, because they are partly or wholly broken. The goddess wears a crown, earrings, necklaces, garland, *neti*, bracelets, anklets, lower garment and a scarf.

(1) NARRATIVE ILLUSTRATIONS: The episodes and narrations beautifully engraved decorate many Jaina temples. At Kolar in Vindhya state, there is the sculptured *madarandā* panel on the central bay of the pillared corridor adjoining the *adhishṭhāṇa* on the side of the entrance door of the temple. On this architrave is carved in high relief the pictorial representation of a legend probably from the life of a Jaina Tirthaṅkara. On the left corner of the sculpture is represented a queen reclining on a canopied couch. Then follow in succession from left to right the following fourteen objects

elephant, bull, horse, an unintelligible symbol, the Sun and Moon, Kuśa, Kāśā, walled town, river, temple, Sahasrabāga and lastly *ambā*. The connection between these fourteen objects and the sleeping queen is elucidated by the following lines in Nāgari characters of the twelfth century engraved in the left corner of the sculpture 'Mahārājā Uśālādevī Centoradāśa Śrapaṇī pūyati' which means Mahārājā Uśālādevī sees fourteen dreams.

At Kālandari in Simlā cave, there is placed a sculptured panel representing in high relief a worshipper in the act of feeding a pigeon in the main shrine of the Jaina temple of Mahāvīra. It seems probably a representation of a man in charitable pose expressing kindness.

In the Jaina temples of Abu, the ceiling and the surfaces are sculptured with innumerable incidents from the various epics such as the *Ramayana*, the *Mahābhārata* etc. The scene of the birth of Kṛṣṇa and his various activities have been skilfully sculptured. In the sculptures, the incidents are drawn from the stories in the *Śaurasṭyapurnāṇandya* as shown by the names of heroes and other persons being engraved beneath them. In the *raṅgamāṇḍapā* of the temple of Vimala, the scenes of the battle between Bharata and Bīṣṇali and the marriage party of Nemiñātha have been artistically sculptured. The incidents in the previous lives of the Tīrthaṅkaras have been excellently illustrated by the sculptures in the temple of Abu. There are numerous sculptured panels of this type in the Jaina temples all over Rajasthan.

4. JAINA PAINTING

Rajasthan and Gujarat once abounded in paintings; but time, weather, the destructibility of the material used and the functions of the *Mandira* are responsible for the disappearance of a large portion of them. However, a considerable number of paintings have escaped destruction. The credit of preservation of these articles goes to the *Sāṅgadhāras* of the Jāinas.

FOUNDATION OF THE WESTERN SCHOOL, SĀṆGADHARA: Sāṅgadhara, an artist from Mithura, laid the foundation of the Western school in the seventh century A.D. His traditions travelled even to Nepal and Kashmir. According to the testimony of Tārānātha, the earlier school of Nepal

resembled the Western old school. In Kashmir also, there were its followers.¹ No painting of so early times from Marwar or Western India has survived so that its distinguishing features could be determined. But if the sculpture is the index of the art conventions of those times, the angularity in the treatment of human figures may be taken as the distinguishing feature of the Western Indian art at that time.

The Jaina miniatures may be divided into four classes on the basis of the material: (1) The illustrated palm manuscripts executed from the thirteenth century to the fifteenth century A.D. (2) Jaina miniatures in the paper period. (3) Cloth paintings. (4) Wooden covers.

THE ILLUSTRATED PALM-LEAF MANUSCRIPTS. There are several palm-leaf manuscripts found in the Śāstra bhāṇḍāras of Rajasthan. Some of them are illustrated and give us some ideas of Jaina paintings in early times. There are six *chitravatīkās*² in which the nine previous lives of Neminātha and Rājaman have been depicted. In the first picture, the two previous lives of Neminātha namely Dhaga and Dhūpavati and Saṁdharma have been represented. As Saṁdharma has connection with the heaven, the *devatāmūrtis* have also been depicted. In the second picture, the next three previous lives of Citragata and Vṛṣavajra, Mīhendra Devaloka and the king Aparājitra and his queen Prithvati have been illustrated. In the third picture, the sixth, seventh and eighth *dharmas* of heaven, Saṁkharāja and Vasomati and Aparājitra have been well represented. In the fourth *chitravatīkā*, the pregnant wife of the king Samudravajra and four of the fourteen dreams she saw, have been depicted. The fifth *chitravatīkā* contains the picture of the remaining dreams and birth of Neminātha. The sixth picture is concerned with the incidents from his birth ceremony to his initiation. At the time of birth, Hārinaga carries Bhagavān on mountain Meru where the birth ceremony is celebrated. While going for the marriage, Neminātha feels moved at the sight of the animals to be killed for the marriage feast. He then at once turns a monk. Indra is standing with the clothes for Neminātha.

Nineteen *Chitravatīkās*,³ which illustrate the incidents of the life of Pārśvanātha, are, namely, (1) Pregnancy of his mother Vānā who sees the fourteen dreams, (2) Inquiry about their result, (3) Birth of Pārśvanātha,

1. I.A., IV, p. 102.

2. *Jaisalamerasaṁ Chitra-Saṁgrahā*, pictures from 4 to 9.

3. *Jaisalamerasaṁ Chitra-Saṁgrahā*, pictures from 11 to 29.

(4) Carrying of Pārśva by Harineya on mountain Meru, (5) Birth ceremony of Pārśva on Meru, (7) Lagna of Bhagavān, (8) Marriage of Pārśva, (9) Pārśva in the inner apartment, (10) Pārśva on horse back going to an ascetic, (11) five kinds of fire panthers (*Pañcāgni Topaṇḍī*) of Kamaṇḍa and the restoration of the serpent, (12) Śāhvasatīkalāṇa, (13) Sorrow after giving up the worldly life, (14) Raising out the hair for the initiation and the standing of Devadashya with clothes, (15) A pupil with a book of palm-leaves studying with the teacher, (16) Jalepusarga of Kamaṇḍa on Bhagavān Pārśva, (17 & 18) Enlightenment of Pārśva and his speech to the people on the eve of Samavasaraṇa, and (19) Nirvāṇa of Pārśva.

There are three *chitravastukās*¹ concerning the life of Mahāvīra. In the first picture, Trishālā sees the fourteen dreams and speaks about them to Siddhārtha. The expectation of Trishālā about the pregnancy and the birth of Mahāvīra are depicted in the second picture. In the third document, the carrying of Mahāvīra by Harineya on mount Meru for the purpose of performing the birth ceremony is shown.

There are also other *chitravastukās* of this period which depict the scenes of natural beauties like a tank full of water, lotus flowers growing in it, swans and crocodiles in it and the playful girls playing with the water of the tank. There is also the scene of the forest in which the rhinoceros and the jack have been depicted. One document is decorated with beautiful flowers. Another is decorated with the symbol of the Sun.²

Besides, other copies of the illustrated manuscripts are also known. The museum of the Fine Arts, Boston, possesses the *Jyēṣṭhapratībhāvanā-bhūmi* which has come down from a place near Udaipur.³ It contains six pictures and is dated 1260 A.D. There is also an illustrated copy of the *Kaṭhasūtra* in the collection of Pankaj Chandra of Phalodi.⁴ The illustrated copies of the *Kaṭhasūtra* and the *Kaṭha-Kaṭh* of the fourteenth century A.D. got from Marwar are in the collection of Śrīrābhāī Nawth.⁵

After an examination of the miniatures of the first group, it seems that the subject of painting was confined to the representation of the Trishālikarma, gods, goddesses and monks. In these miniatures, the Western

1. *Jainism and Hindu Iconography*, from 30 to 32.

2. *Ibid.*, pictures from 1 to 3.

3. Norman Datta, *Story of Kishin*, p. 18.

4. *Pantakalyanika* (Srivastava, p. 1).

5. *Ibid.*, p. 17.

Indian technique has crystallized itself. The drawing is angular, the physical peculiarities such as the pointed nose, chin and the eyes protruding in space appear; and there is no attempt at modelling in colours.

The Western Indian art is fundamentally linear and, therefore, these miniatures of the first group lack depth and appear flat. In certain cases crude modelling is also noticed by thickening the outline of certain parts of the figure or by the application of slight washes. The miniatures have a restricted colour scheme consisting of vermillion, yellow blue, white and rarely green. The back ground is generally bricked close to vermillion.

MINIATURES IN THE PAPER PERIOD: The use of the paper as a writing and painting material started on a considerable scale from about the fourteenth century A.D. As a result of it, technical process in painting also underwent changes. Large spaces also meant the bigger composition and greater representation of details. Finer border decorations also began to be introduced in the paper period. There came a radical change in the choice of colours. Generally, gold took the place of yellow. Gold and silver inks were used for writing. Ultramarine blue began to be used for covering the entire ground.

Various illustrated copies of manuscripts are also known. There is an illustrated copy of *Kālakāṣṭhī* of A.D. 1474 in the collection of Phulachand of Phalodi. Another illustrated copy of the *Kaṭhamā* written in A.D. 1525 at Yavanapura in Rajasthan in golden ink is in the possession of Shri Hans Vijaya of Baroda. It has eight beautiful pictures and 75 borders.

In the *Sūtrasaṃgraha* of Terapanthi at Jaipur, there is an illustrated copy of the *Adiparva* of the great poet Pārśvadatta in Apabhraṃśa, written in 1540 A.D. The artist Harinātha was of a Kāyastha community. There are 341 pages having about 115 pictures. On one side of the leaf, a brief explanation of the picture is given in order to make it intelligible.

The important incidents such as the prayer of Śreyāka to Mahārāja, seeing of smṛeṇ dreams by the mother of Parthivāra Adinātha and the birth of Adinātha, dance of Indras and *apante*, the marriage of Adinātha, his coronation ceremony, his instructions to his daughters, his penances, his enlightenment, the campaign of Bhadrā, the duel between Bhadrā and Bhāmbhā, the fight between Megheśvara and Arkakīrti and the marriage of Sulechanā, the daughter of Arkakīrti with Megheśvara have been realistically

and beautifully illustrated. Besides, these pictures throw considerable light on the social and cultural condition of the medieval period of Indian history.

The paintings do not indicate that Hindu society in Rajasthan had been influenced much by the impact of the Muslim culture. The *parda* system had not come into existence. Women were coloured and painted *stree*. There were various ways of wearing it. Some women are shown wearing close fitted trousers also. They moved freely in the society. They have been depicted participating along with men in social activities such as music, dance and worship. The main musical instruments were the drum, trumpets and *phalaris*. The various poses of dancing also have been depicted. Men wore the *dhotee* in different ways. The *dupatta* was thrown over the back. Some men have been illustrated wearing long coats and close fitted trousers. On the head, the *paggaf* is invariably there. That women used to wear many ornaments is clear from the pictures. The ornaments of women were of various types such as necklaces, earrings, *haralis*, bangles and *chudis*.

The march of armies and battles have been beautifully and realistically displayed. The army consisted of cavalry, infantry, elephants and chariots. The chief weapons used in battles were swords, bows, arrows etc. The soldier is shown wearing a hat on the head and a long coat and trousers. This was not a Muslim custom. It had come down from the time of the Sakas and the Hūṇas.

The scenes of natural beauties have been illustrated with great success. Kailāsa mountain and other hills and flowing water of the Ganges have been described. Fishes, tortoises and other animals are exhibited in the water of the river. Pictures of green plants and trees are drawn beautifully.

On the religious side, scenes of Devaloka, Indraloka and dancing of the *apsaras* have been ostentatiously shown. The dreadful and horrific scenes of the hell have also been illustrated. There are the pictures of the temples, shrines and the images of the Tirthankaras. Monks and nuns have been noticed preaching the doctrines of Jainism.

The *Yashodhamcharita* remained a popular book among the Jains. Its several illustrated copies have been discovered. In the *Sitvalundilāya* of Pt. Lachharaj Pipliyā at Jaipur, the illustrated manuscript of *Yashodhamcharita* of 1731 A.D. is noteworthy. It contains about 55 pictures which are all artistic and beautiful. Another illustrated copy of the *Yashodhamcharita*,

which contains 27 pictures, is available in the Jaina temple of Piplod at Jaipur. It was originally prepared in 1756 A.D. at Rājānagara in Ahmedabad. Three illustrated copies of this manuscript have been also preserved at Mojamābād in Jaipur district. The first containing 63 pictures is incomplete. The second copy of 74 pictures is prepared during the reign of Mahārāja Mānasīnha of Amber. The third copy was made by Sīlha Sāmra for presentation to Achārya Kṣhamaśchandra during the reign of Mahārāja Mānasīnha in 1861 A.D. It possesses 74 pictures. An illustrated copy of this manuscript containing 73 pictures is found in Śrī Ailaka Praṇāṇā Dīgambara Jaina Saṁvatsā Bhuvana of Bawar. Originally it was written in Rājapura in Ahmedabad in 1714 A.D.

These pictures of the various illustrated copies of *Yakṣaśaśvatras* throw a flood of light on the religious and social conditions of that period. There are the portraits of monks and nuns. Monks are naked but nuns are wearing white *śrīṭī*. The monks going in procession have been also illustrated. Their devotees are shown presenting alms to them. The practice of the slaughter of animals before the temple of Deṇṇ has been described. A royal procession with soldiers and officials has been also depicted. The merry making of the king in the inner apartment has been well spread out. The pictures of the various animals such as snakes, dogs, peacocks, fishes, goats and crocodiles have been realistically executed. Trees with leaves and branches have been beautifully represented.

The three copies of the manuscripts namely the *Bhishamāvalāpīṭ*, *Aśvānīkajīvanāvalā* and *Sarānamāvalāpīṭ* in covers artistically designed and embroidered have been found in a Jaina temple at Jaipur. These are remarkable for the border decorations representing various kinds of floral designs, geometrical patterns and lozenges. Beautiful illustrations of carpets have been also given.

There is a copy of the *Sadgataśaśvatras* of the eighteenth century A.D. in Jethanera Jaina temple of Jaipur. This manuscript is bound by a cloth embroidered with lead beads illustrating the 16 objects of the dream seen by the mother of the Tirthaṅkara. It contains nineteen beautiful pictures. In the first picture, the *patals* of the *Śarpa* and the *śimśant* in them have been depicted. In the second figure, the universe has been compared to Lokapurushā. There is a Nandīśvanāśrīpa in the third picture. In the fourth plate, there are

the pictures of the Tirthaṅkaras. The seven Goshas have been depicted in the fifth picture. In the sixth picture, the dreadful horrors of the hell have been shown. In the seventh plate, the army of the Indra has been illustrated. In the eighth picture, there are the eight different figures of the Yakshas. Besides the pictorial stories of the Jambhadvīpa, Lavanāsasmodirā, Indrasabhlā, birth ceremony of Indra, the condition of man at the time of intense thirst, hunger and *Tṛṣṇā* and the Vināśat of heaven have been beautifully unfolded. The *Shakṣīyas* have been compared with the mango tree. According to the Jaina scriptures, there are the six complexions of the worldly soul as Kṛṣṇa, Nīla, Kāpota, Padma, Śukla and Pīta. The Kṛṣṇa lōcya has been explained by felling down the whole mango tree for eating mangoes, while the Śuklalōcya has been illustrated by eating only the fallen mangoes of the tree.

There is also an illustrated copy of the manuscript namely *Tṛiṣṭokya-ūṣṇadīpaka* of the eighteenth century A.D. found in a Jaina temple at Jaipur. It contains about ten pictures. In the first picture, Maḍhyaloka has been illustrated from which Tṛasajīvas do not extricate themselves. In the second picture, there is a shrine between Mānasasiddha and Dhvajā. Besides, there are the pictures such as the Saṁhāmanāḍapa, Jambhadvīpa, Kuṇḍaladvīpa, Nandīśvaradvīpa with the four mountains in the four directions, Mānashomaragiri in Pushkaradvīpa and Sumatiparvata with the forests situated in Vidarbha. Jambhadvīpa is grown in Jambhadvīpa and the Tirthaṅkara seated on the lotus flower have been shown.

Besides, there are other illustrated manuscripts relating to magical beliefs in the temple of Lokaṭaranajī Pīṇḍyā. The pictures of Jvālāmūlīnī, Bhūmīgya, Padmāvatī and Mahāmāyāgayaṇtra etc. are noteworthy. Some portraits are of Padmaprabha, Kālīkādevī, Namasīṁhāvanāra, Padmāvatī and Gaṇeśa on the papers of about two hundred years or three hundred years old. Among them, there are pictures of the *postura* like Kalīkuṇḍapāśrayaṇtra, Suryapraṇālayaṇtra, Tīrṭhapāṇāyana, Vajrapāṇāyana, Chaturāṅghīyogīyana etc. Such pictures are also available in Śrī Aṭṭaka Paṇḍitā Digambara Jaina Sarasvatī Bhavana at Benwar and Jhālapanan.

There are three illustrated copies of manuscripts such as *Gommatāra* of 1677 A.D., *Kālakācharyakatha* and *Gita* in the Śāstrabhāṇḍārā of Nagaur. An illustrated copy of the *Tīrthānara* of the eighteenth century A.D. is found in the Śāstrabhāṇḍārā of Mahāvīrajī. The beautifully illustrated copy of the

Blakagunastotes of the nineteenth century A.D. is preserved in the Sâtra-bhândîra of Badkandîra at Jaipur.

VĪSHĀPTIPATRAS: These are the letters of invitation sent to the Jaina Āchāryas requesting them to stay with a Jaina Saṅgha or community of a particular locality during the next *Chaturvartī*. These letters were also meant to arrange for the acts of communion and omision of the members of a Saṅgha and to convey their good wishes for the whole humanity. They usually give in a pictorial form the description of the locality from which they are sent. The pictures are also useful for the history of the art of painting. They also throw a great deal of light on the social and religious conditions.

One such letter was issued from Sirsā to Parat in North Gujarat in 1725 A.D. to invite Muni Vijayakṣaṇḍ Suri.¹ It is about 2½ feet and 4 inches in length and 12 inches in breadth. The pictures cover a space of some 15 feet and 8 inches. Such a letter was also issued from Jodhpur in 1791 A.D. to the Śrīpūjya Viṇayaprasāda who was staying at Dabhoi in Gujarat.² It is 25 feet and 3½ inches long and 8½ inches wide. Viṇayasinha is mentioned as the ruler of Jodhpur in it. There is another illustrated Vīśāptipatra measuring about 3½ feet and 6 inches by 11 inches sent from Jodhpur in 1815 A.D. to Vijayadvasari who was residing at Surat.³ Another letter was issued from Udaipur in the time of Bhīmasinha who ruled from 1767 A.D. to 1828 A.D. In 1744 A.D. during the reign of Mahārāja Jorāvarsingha, a Vīśāptipatra was issued from Bikaner to Āchārya Jinalbhaktasuri staying at Radhanapura. It is 9 feet and 7 inches in length and 9 inches in breadth.⁴ The Vīśāptipatra prepared at Jaipur is not dated, but it belongs to about v.s. 1930. It was sent from Ājīmagarh to Muni Ratnavijaya at Uvalher. It is beautiful from an artistic point of view. It is 19 feet in length and 11½ inches in breadth. Buildings, markets, streets, forts and cross-roads of Jaipur have been depicted in it.⁵ Similar invitation letter was sent from Bikaner in v.s. 1898 to Jīmanibhāgyasūri of Kharatara Gachchhi. It is 97 feet by 11 inches. It gives a plan of the situation of markets, forts and important buildings of Bikaner in that year.⁶

In the pictures of the Vīśāptipatras, we generally find the representation of *manigatākalak*, the female musicians playing on the musical

1. *Ancient Vīśāptipatras*, p. 45.

2. *Ibid.*, p. 48.

3. *Ibid.*, p. 57.

4. *Ibid.*, 5. RB., III, No. 3-4.

6. *Arantika*, I, p. 57.

7. RB., I, p. 28.

instruments, the sleeping mother of a Tirthaṅkara and acting the fourteen drama. Besides, there is generally the description of the locality in the pictorial form such as Jain temples, portraits of monks, nuns and kings, the monk imparting instructions to laymen in the Jain temples, patch of bazar scene with various shops on its sides, banias, tailors, physicians in their shops and the fortifications of the town. The Brahmanical temples of Viṣṇu and Śiva are also pictured.

(3) **PAINTINGS ON CLOTH:** From the ancient literature, it is clear that the cloth was used for paintings in ancient India. But we do not find such a type of paintings before the fourteenth century A.D. This may be due to the perishable nature of the cloth and the wanton destruction of the artistic pieces caused by the Muslims.

The earliest in date may be the Chintāmaṇi Yantra measuring 19½ inches in length and 17½ inches in breadth. It is in Nīhātī Kālī Bhavani at Bikaner. There is a portrait of Tāraṇaprabhācārīya drawn on a cloth. It was perhaps painted during his life time. In it, Pārivaṇātha has been shown on *śūḍhāṇḍa* placed within the concentric magical circles and attended by Dharagendra and Padmāvatī, the Chaurī bearers. On the top left is Pūrva Yakṣa and on the top right, is the goddess Vairāṇyā. In between these two are a couple of Gandharvas. On the lower right and the left are Tāraṇaprabhācārīya with two disciples and two more disciples respectively. There are the two Chaurī bearers outside the circle.

We find artistic pieces on cloth of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries representing the scenes of Nandīśvaradvīpa, Jambūdvīpa, Samavaśarapa and the places of the pilgrimage such as Sacroḍjaya, Samamedśikhara etc. At these places of pilgrimage, temples have been shown; and in their sanctuaries are placed the images of the Tirthaṅkars attended by a host of gods and goddesses, musicians and Chaurī bearers etc. Pilgrims have been shown ascending the hill, resting, dancing, worshipping or hearing religious discourses of their preceptors.

(4) **PAINTED WOODEN COVERS:** Wooden covers were also used for painting in the past but only a few have survived the ravages of time. About ten or twelve such wooden covers of books have been discovered in the famous Jāmābhagīlāras at Jaipur. But only two of them are of special importance and deserve some description.

The oldest cover¹ of them is 26 inches in length and 3 inches in breadth. Some details have been worn out from one corner of it. In the centre of the cover is a Jaina temple with a Jaina image. In the right compartment, there are two worshippers standing with folded hands; and the two female dancers are bending their bodies in various ways. In the left compartment, there are three worshippers standing with folded hands and a Kinnar is flying in the sky at the top. On the sides of these compartments are the rosettes framed by decorative floral bands. Then there are represented the scenes of the discussion hall of Jinadattasuri. On the left side, there seems to be Jinadattasuri clad in a white robe seated on the chair known to us from the inscription. Before him is seated a Jaina monk whom the inscription calls Jinakshina. Two laymen on the cushions are hearing the discourse of the Āchārya. Behind Jinadatta, there are shown a layman and two women. In front of the Muni is placed Śhūpanāchārya inscribed with the word Mūhāra. In the discussion hall on the right the Āchārya is seated sitting in the same pose discussing with Sri Gupachandrachārya. Behind him are seated a Jaina monk and a layman.

From a close examination, one can conclude that the cover perhaps belonged to some personal palm-leaf manuscript of Āchārya Jinadatta presented to him by some rich disciple. It is possible that men and women represented on the cover were the members of the family of a layman who presented the manuscripts.

"This painted wooden cover is of great importance as it is the earliest of its kind, and its painting forms a connecting link as it were between the later paintings at Ellora and the full fledged Western Indian School. In the early palm leaf manuscripts, the poses of the figures are restricted; but from this panel, it is evident that the artists were quite capable of depicting the intricate dance poses."²

Another wooden cover illustrates the historical incident of the defeat of Kumudachandra by Devasuri in the religious discussion in the royal court of Siddharāja Jayasinha in 1124 A.D. It is quite possible that this painted wooden cover was prepared within four or five years of the great

1. *Bhāratīya Vidyā*, III, pp. 233-235.

2. *Jaina Miniature Paintings from Western India*, p. 58.

discussion when the incidents were still fresh in memory. If this assumption is correct, the date of the painted cover should fall near about 1150 A.D.¹

On the obverse of the cover, there is a temple at Āśāpalli. In it, there is a preaching hall. Devasuni is seen sitting on a high backed stool. Behind him is a boy disciple. In front of him lies the Śhāganūchārya. He seems to be explaining some difficult problems to his disciple Minkya. Four laymen sitting on the floor are watching this trend of discussion in order to convey it to their teacher Kumudachandra. They seem to be of the Digambara sect. In the next compartment, Kumudachandra is seen seated on a high backed stool holding the peacock tail which with his one disciple on the back and the another in front of him. In the next compartment, there is Devasuni with his two disciples and two laymen. The messenger came from Kumudachandra challenging him for discussion. In the next compartment, Kumudachandra is noticed sitting on the floor with the laymen. An old nun has been shown roughly handled by his follower for her act of sacrifice. In the next compartment, the old nun is seen complaining to Devasuni about the treatment meted out to her by a follower of her adversary. After that, Kumudachandra hears the message brought by his messenger from Devasuni. Last compartment is a market place where a woman is selling glue to a merchant.

On the reverse, both the Āchāryas are seen starting with their followers from Āśāpalli to Patan. On the left side is depicted the march of Devasuni for whose successful ending the Śvetāmbara laymen had arranged the good omens. On the right side, the march of Kumudachandra with his party has been shown with ill omens such as cobra. After that, its immediate results have been shown. Kumudachandra after reaching Patan is making an attempt to meet the queen mother but is stopped from doing so by the kasper.

"This wooden panel is of great interest for we find in this panel for the first time all the distinguishing features of the Western Indian school. It is an art of draughtmanship and the straight line and angles are preferred. The painted nose and chin are very prominent and the distended chest which is very much exaggerated in later paintings of the Western Indian school appears. The drawings denote that the prominence of the farther eye has not yet reached that conventional stage when they do not form part of the

1. *Illustrations Vidyā*, III, p. 256. Mr. Srinubhai Navat is of opinion that this painted wooden cover was probably copied from the original in the 18th-19th century A.D.

face but seem quite detached. Here, in the three quarter profile, part of further cheeks, having eyes with a slight tendency to protrude into space is noticeable".¹

CHAPTER V

JAINA LITERATURE

Jaina literature occupies a prominent place in Indian literature, and considerable contributions have been made by Jaina scholars to its different branches. As this literature is marked by moral and religious sentiments, it cannot be so-called secularism. Jaina scholars have written such a type of literature, because they wanted to bring about the moral uplift of the people. Besides, it is also noticed that Jaina saints generally wrote their works in a simple and popular language for the masses.

JAINA LITERATURE VALUABLE FROM THE POINT OF VIEW OF PHILOLOGY: The Jaina literature is valuable from the point of view of philology and history as the Jaina scholars have made their contributions at every stage in the growth of Indian literature. Mahāvīra preached his teachings in in Prākṛit (Ardhamāgadhī), the language of the masses, and this practice was also followed by his successors. When Prākṛit assumed the literary form from about the seventh century or a little earlier, Jaina scholars started to adopt Apabhraṃśa as the medium of their literary works. Most of the surviving Apabhraṃśa works also belong to the Jaina authors. The provincial languages of India such as Hindi, Gujarātī, Rājasthānī, Marāṭhī, etc. developed out of Apabhraṃśa from about the 12th century A.D. or so. A large number of literary works written by Jaina authors in old Hindi are still found preserved in Jaina Śāstraśāhagṛāha of Rājasthān and as such, they may throw considerable light on the origin and gradual development of Hindi. The Jains contributed considerably also to the growth and development of Gujarātī and Rājasthānī languages. Jain influence is traceable even on Sindhi and Marāṭhī languages. Most of the Kannada literature belongs to the Jains. The Jains also wrote in Tamil and Telugu languages. Besides, the Jains showed remarkable ability from time to time in writing their several works in Sanskrit which was considered to be the literary language of intellectual aristocrats.

1. *Jaina Manuscript Paintings from Western India*, pp. 61-62.

DIFFICULTY OF KNOWING EXACT JAINA LITERATURE COMPOSED IN RAJASTHAN: The Jaina literature was mostly composed by Jaina Sādhus who wandered constantly from place to place for the dissemination of *Dharma* and for the uplift of masses. Therefore, the question of their residence does not arise at all. We do not know much about the birth places of a number of Jaina Sādhus and the places where they wrote their works. There are instances in Jaina history that an author was born in Rajasthan but was initiated in Gujarat and moved about and composed all the works in the same province. In the same way, there were so many born in Gujarat but their place of activity was Rajasthan. There are various examples that a work was started in Rajasthan but completed in Gujarat or began in Gujarat but finished in Rajasthan. Because of the holy places in Rajasthan and Gujarat, the visit of Jaina saints from one province to another was frequent. Besides in early times, the inhabitants of these provinces spoke a common language generally termed Western Rājasthānī. Under these circumstances, it is somehow difficult to give exact information about the literature composed by the Jainas in Rajasthan, because one and the same author composed several works in both the provinces.

In spite of the Jaina Āchāryas being associated with Rajasthan from very ancient times, we do not know where *some* of the works were written before the eighth century. However from the eighth century onwards, intensive literary activities of the Jainas are noticed. For the systematic understanding of the Jaina literature composed in Rajasthan, we may divide it under five heads: (1) Canonical and Philosophical works; (2) Rich narrative literature; (3) Kāvya, Muktākāvyas and other poems; (4) Scientific literature; (5) Works on History and Politics.

(1) CANONICAL AND PHILOSOPHICAL WORKS

Canonical literature forms the most important branch of Jaina literature and it included eleven *Angas*, twelve *Upāṅgas*, six *Chandogyaśāstras*, four *Mahāśāstras*, ten *Prakīrṇakas*, and two other *Nāṭras*, the *Angagadāśāstras* and *Nandīśāstra*. To these come add Bhadrabāhu's twelve *Nigantus*, the *Uśābhāṣyabhāṣya*, twenty more *Prakīrṇakas*, the *Paryāyavākyas*, *Ītikālpasūtra*, *Śrībhadrāśāstra*, *Prakīrṇakaśāstra*, *Vandīśāstra*, *Kāśīśāstra*, *Yatīśāstra* and the *Rāṣṭrīyāśāstra*, thus bringing the total number of *Śāstra*-works to eighty

form. This branch of sacred literature was studied at all times and, therefore, several commentaries and subcommentaries were written on it in different languages from time to time. Not only *Āgamas* but philosophical works were also written in order to give a systematic presentation of the fundamental principles of Jainism.

Some of the authors, who wrote on Canonical and Philosophical subjects, were Rājashāhis. Haribhadra of Chitor is the most famous author of Jain literature as regards not only the number of the works he wrote but also the diversity of the subjects, he treated.¹ He commented on the *Āgastya-sūtras*, *Ānandakīrti-sūtra*, *Dakṣaśikṣikā-sūtra*, *Nandi-sūtra*, *Pratyakṣa-sūtra* etc. Besides his commentaries on *Āgamas*, he wrote the *Anukūlajayapatrikā* and *Anukūlajayopaniṣad*, in which he not only expounded the Jain philosophy of Anukūla but also criticized current philosophical systems. The study of *Anukūlajayopatrikā* remained popular even in subsequent periods.² Among other philosophical works, mention can be made of his *Yasodanā*³ and *Yasodāśīśamandukya*. His commentary on the *Śāṅkhya-sūtra* of Dignāga⁴ introduced the Jain world to Buddhist logic. He had also his religious compositions like the *Dharmasamgrahani*, *Kāśyapaśāstrīkīrti*, *Pañcamaṣṭa*, *Dharmabandha*, *Aśṭaka*, *Śaṭśloka*, *Pratibhāṭya* and *Sambhāṣapraśaṅga*, in some of which, he not merely expounded Jain principles but threw as well a challenge for all-sided reform; doctrinal as well as social.

Even after Haribhadra, Jain scriptures were being intensively studied in Rājasthān. Vitasta least the *Śaṅkhaśāstrīya* and the *Kāśyapaśāstrīya* from Plābhārya at Chitor and after that, he wrote the *Dharm* and the portion of the *Jyotiṣa* in the south, in the ninth century.⁵ In 858 A.D., Jayasindhasura composed the *Dharmapadeśasādhana* during the reign of the Pratihāra ruler Mihirakhoja at Nāgaon.⁶ Another great Gurary writer was

1. According to Jain traditions, he is said to have composed 1600 *Prakaraṇas*. It seems that in this connection *Prakaraṇa* does not denote as usually a separate systematic treatise but is used in restricted sense. Many of his works have perished due to the ravages of time but still a large number of his works are available. See the list of his works in JSSI, pp. 159-60.

2. SVRSSG, p. 844.

3. Published by Jainadharaniprasādnaka Sāhā, Bhūvaṅgar.

4. It was commented on also by Pārśvadavaganti in Y. 1199 (*Pāṇini Catalogue of MSS.* p. 293.)

5. JGPS, p. 10 (Introduction).

6. JSSI, p. 160.

Siddharshi who wrote a treatise on the *Nyāyavivarta* of Siddhasena and *Upadeśasūtras* of Dharmadīpaṃ in the tenth century.¹ Haridraja, who was originally a resident of Chitor and belonged to the Dhakkaḍa family, migrated to Achalapura where he wrote the *Dharmaparikṣā* in 987 A.D.² Jinśvarami was not only the reformer but also a scholar who wrote the *Pratīkṣāśāstra* along with a commentary. His other known works are *Pāñchalingī-prakaraṇa* and *Śāmalānandī-prakaraṇa* and commentaries written on *Abhidhāt* of Haridraja in 1023 A.D.³ Jinavallabhasuri is the author of several works such as *Sakṣatvacharābhīratatāratātra*, *Ājñāśāmalānandīratātra*, *Pratīkṣāśāstrī-prakaraṇa*, *Pratīkṣāśāstrī-prakaraṇa*, *Sakṣatvacharā*, *Pratīkṣāśāstrī-prakaraṇa*, *Dharmavivarta*, *Dharmaparikṣā*, *Pratīkṣāśāstrī-prakaraṇa* and *Pratīkṣāśāstrī*.⁴

The period from the eleventh to the thirteenth century A.D. may be called the golden age in Jain literature, because Jain scholars wrote notable works at this time. Jinadattasuri, who preached Jainism to the chiefs of Rajasthan, is the author of several works such as *Kāśyapa-pāṇḍita*, *Vivarta*, *Charcharī*, *Sakṣatvacharā*, *Sakṣatvacharā* and *Upadeśasūtra*.⁵ Manichandrasuri, the profound scholar of Jainism, wrote several works and commentaries. He began to write a treatise on the *Upadeśasūtra* of Haridraja at Nagaur but finished it at Patan in 1117 A.D.⁶ The pupil of Manichandrasuri was Validevasuri who wrote the *Pratīkṣāśāstrī* along with a commentary of his own, the *Pratīkṣāśāstrī*.⁷ Hemachandra, a younger contemporary of Devanuri and guru of Kuntāpāda, was the celebrated writer who wrote on different branches of learning. He wrote the *Pratīkṣāśāstrī* with a commentary of his own. His other Philosophical works known to us are *Ājñāśāmalānandī* and *Yajñavalkya*. Jinapatisuri, who visited the court of Prithvīrāja II the Chauhān ruler of Ajmer, composed the *Pratīkṣāśāstrī* and his commentaries on *Sakṣatvacharā* of Jinavallabha and *Pāñchalingī* of Jinśvarami are

1. JSSS, p. 186.

2. *The Age of Imperial Kanauj*, p. 219. Dr. Hira Lal Jais identifies Achalapur with modern Ellhapur in Aravalli District. Sri Agastya Nāthā thinks it to be modern 'Achhalpur' still situated in Mewar. See JSSS, p. 721.

3. JSSS, p. 208.

4. Ibid., pp. 231-232.

5. JSSS, pp. 233.

6. Ibid., p. 242.

7. Ibid., pp. 248-249.

also known.¹ His learned Śrāvaka named Nemichandra Bhagīrī of Marukota is the author of *Shashitātaka* in Pīṭhī.² *Dharmakalpapravṇa* written in Pīṭhī in 1129 A.D. by *Dharmakalpaśūri*, who has a great influence over the Chauhāna ruler Vijayashēja of Sakambhūrī, is also available.³ In 1217 A.D. Sarvadevasuri of the Khamtaragachha composed the *Śvarṇamuktābhīkāra* at Jaisolmer.⁴ The *Upadhyāyābhīkāra* was composed by Vijayasinhasuri of Chandragachha in 1246 A.D.⁵

Jindevāsuri became the *patil* at Jinapatisuri and wrote the *Dharmakalpapravṇa*. His disciples namely Lakshminilaka, Abhayatilaka and Savarāja also wrote valuable works.⁶ A lengthy commentary was written by Lakshminilaka on the *Dharmakalpapravṇa* in 1260 A.D. at Jalor. Abhayatilaka prepared a treatise on the *Nyāyābhīkāra* and Sarvarāja, at the request of the nun named Buddhaisamridhī wrote commentaries on the *Samadhyāyābhīkāra* and *Pañcādyāyapravṇa*. Vivekāsāgara, the pupil of Jindevāsuri, also wrote the *Samyaktāvatārika*.⁷ In 1316 A.D. Jinakubhasuri wrote a commentary on the *Chaitanyarandanaśūlaka* of Jinadattasūri at Barmer.⁸

Another reputed scholar of this age is Lāṭhāna who originally belonged to Mandalgadh in Mewar but left it for Dhara in Malwa on account of Muslim invasions in the thirteenth century. He is the author of more than twenty works,⁹ the *Śaṅkraharmatāpita* and *Angira-Dharmatāpita* being the most famous and popular. He also wrote commentaries on them known respectively as *Jīvanāpīṭhā* and *Shreyasamānāshāpīṭhā*. His *Atīthānā* is a treatise on the *Ītīhāsa*, a work of Śivārya written in Pīṭhī. He also wrote a philosophical work named *Pranavāsanīdhara* but it is not available. He composed the work on Yoga known as the *Ābhāsanādhya*. The *Jinajñānakalpapravṇa* was written by him, but its commentary is not available. He wrote a commentary on *Ishopadeśa* of Pūjyapāda and *Udayābhāvanīśāpīṭhā* of Bhupāla. He wrote *Nakṣatrasamāntarāṇa* with his own commentary. He composed the *Nyāyamānādhya* and *Ramāyānābhīkāra*.

Even after the thirteenth century A.D., literary activities continued among the Jains. Numerous works were written but most of them were stereotyped, imitative and artificial. They are not spontaneous and natural as

1. JSSI, pp. 335-336.

2. RB III, No. 2.

3. Ibid.,

4. RB, III, No. 2.

5. JSSI, p. 240.

6. RB, III, No. 2.

7. JSSI, p. 415.

8. Ibid., p. 432.

9. JSAI, pp. 134-136.

they were in early times. Padmanandi, pupil of Bhadraka Prabhāchandra of Mulasatgaha, lived in the fourteenth century A.D. and composed the *Jinśekhārasiddhānta*.¹ His pupil Sakahkīrti is a well-known scholar who wrote *Siddhāntasūtrāṇīka*, *Sarabhaśāstrīśāstra*, *Pharagapadāntara*, *Samśākhāra*, *Siddhāntānandī* and *Karmasūtra*. The *Mulāchārāṇīka* was written by him in the temple of Pārvanātha at Badali near Ajmer.² His younger brother and pupil Bāhna Jinādāsa is the author of *Prasammilāsa*.³ The *Siddhāntasūtrāṇīka*, *Parasūtrāṇīka* and *Tattvavivaranamangī* are the works of Jāmalakshana, pupil of Bhuvanakīrti.⁴ His disciple named Sunatikīrti composed the *Karmasūtrāṇīka* and *Pañchāṅgīka*.⁵ Bhadraka Subhachandra is a famous scholar of the sixteenth century; and the works, which are known to have been written by him in a period between 1513 A.D. and 1556 A.D. are *Kārttikyaṇuprokhāṭikā*, *Ādhyātmanamangī*, *Amlikāśāstra*, *Angīpragatya*, *Sarabhaśāstrīśāstra*, *Sarabhaśāstrīśāstrī*, *Karmasūtrāṇīka*, *Chaturmasapuja*, *Apāśāśāstra*, *Tattvavivaranamangī*, *Sarabhaśāstra*, *Shākhā*, *Pañcārataśāstra*, *Chaturmasāśāstrīśāstrīśāstrī* and commentary on *Nāgārjunaśāstra* of Nāgārjuna.⁶

Padmanandina of the Khairatgarachetia wrote a *Rishmanandīkavittī* at Jaipur in 1496 A.D. A commentary on the *Laghvīśāstra* was written by Bhaktīśāstrī in 1514 A.D. at Bikaner.⁷ At the same place in 1525 A.D., Jīvanāsuri composed the *Āchārāṇīka*.⁸ In 1568 A.D. Nāgarāja wrote the *Nādikāṇḍī* at Viramapura in Prākṛit with his own Sanskrit commentary.⁹ The *Prabodharashashikāṇḍī* of Panyāgarā Mahopādhyāya was probably written in Rajasthan. His pupil Padyarāja in 1587 A.D. composed the *Dandakavittī* at Phalodi.¹⁰ Upādhyāya Guṇarāya was the well-known scholar of his time and several works are known to have been written by him in Rajasthan. He made commentaries on *Manṭyāśāstra*, *Saṁśākhāśāstrī*, *Indriyapariśrābhāṭa*, *Rishmanandīkavittī* etc. He also prepared a work named *Vichārāṇīka*.¹¹

Saṁnyāsūndara was the profound scholar of Jainism in medieval times and carried on his literary activities in different parts of Rajasthan. He wrote his works in Sanskrit and Rājasthānī. The *Uttarāṇīka* was prepared by

1. JGPS., No. 14.

2. Ibid., p. 11 (Int.).

3. Ibid.,

4. JSAL., p. 530.

5. JGPS., p. 51.

6. JSAL., p. 561.

7. RB., III, No. 2.

8. Ibid.,

9. Ibid.,

10. Ibid.,

11. Ibid.

him in 1589 A.D. *Utmāchārīśatka* and *Vīśākhāśatka* in 1615 A.D. and *Vīśākhāśatka* in 1617 A.D. are known to have been written at Merta. He composed the *Yatigīśatka* and *Kaipaśārīśatka* in 1642 A.D. at Rājputra, Bikaner. The *Rāpādamāśatka* and *Ahīkāśatka* were written at Bikaner respectively in 1606 A.D. and 1620 A.D. He made the *Īṣṭānāśakamūrti* in 1637 A.D. at Jalor.¹ His pupil Harshamandana wrote a commentary on the *Rāpādamāśatka* in 1648 A.D. and *Utmāchārīśatka* in 1654 A.D. at Bikaner. His *Mūlāyāgyākhyānupādhi* and *Ythānāyāgyākhyānupādhi* are also noteworthy works.²

Rāsknāla wrote an explanatory treatise on *Sakāśārīśatka* at Jalor in 1595 A.D.³ The *Īśāpādamāśakamūrti* was written by Sivachandra in 1612 A.D. at Alwar.⁴ Upādhyāya Surachanda composed the *Jainatattvāśra-grantha* in 1622 A.D. with *Sopajhāyitī* at Amarsar near Bikaner.⁵ In 1627 A.D. Bhāva-vijaya wrote a criticism on the *Utmāchārīśatka* at Sirahi.⁶ In 1666 A.D., Chācīramandana, pupil of Jayarāja, wrote the *Utmāchārīśatka*.⁷ At Venāṭa *Saptapādārīśatka* was made by Bhāva-pranoda in 1675 A.D.⁸ Jinavandhanānandī wrote the *Sakāśārīśatka* in 1682 A.D. at Udaipur.⁹ A fine criticism was written on the *Siddhāntachandrikā* by Sadānanda in 1741 A.D.¹⁰ Lakshmanavallabha, pupil of Lakshmināthī, wrote treatises on the *Utmāchārīśatka* and *Kaipaśārīśatka*.¹¹ *Siddhāntachandrikā* is the work of Jūṣṇanilaka.¹² Udayachandra and Sūmad Devachandra wrote the *Vākyāśatka* and *Jāṇamājjarī* respectively.¹³

In the 17th century A.D., the poet Rājamalla composed the *Īśāśatka*, *Āhīkāśatka* and *Paśāśatka*.¹⁴ Meghaviṣaya is the author of *Mertīśatka*, *Budhaśatka*, *Yatigīśatka* and *Utmāchārīśatka*.¹⁵ Yāgyavatsyāyā was a philosopher who wrote the *Jaina Saptapādārīśatka* in 1700 A.D. at Sangar during the reign of Mahārāja Jayasimha. His other philosophical works are *Pennānupādārīśatka*, *Vādārthanāyaka* and *Āśāśatka*. He wrote an *Anuchārī* on the *Vīśākhāśatka*. He is also the author *Bhāvaśatka* and *Śaṅkaratna*.¹⁶

1. RB., III, No. 2. See also JBSL, p. 589.
2. Ibid.,
3. *Āśāśatka*, I, No. 12.
4. RB., III, No. 2.
5. Ibid.,
6. Ibid.,
7. Ibid.,
8. RB., III, No. 2.
9. Ibid.,
10. Ibid.,
11. Ibid.,
12. Ibid.,
13. Ibid.,
14. JBSL, pp. 651-67.
15. Ibid., p. 654.

2. Ibid.,
5. SPP., XVII, No. 1.
8. Ibid.,
11. RB., I, No. 2.
14. *Anukāṇṭa*, IV, No. 2.

Rājavijaya of the Kharwaragachola wrote the *Caṇḍakāyaśaṅkṣa* in 1760 A.D., *Śatīpāñchābhikṣā* in 1777 A.D., *Nālikāśaṅkṣa*, *Nālikāśaṅkṣa*, *Śatīpāñchābhikṣa*, *Jāyapāñchābhikṣa* etc.¹ His pupil Kṣamāśāyāna was a scholar who wrote the *Śatīpāñchābhikṣa* in 1790 A.D., *Śatīpāñchābhikṣa* in 1795 A.D. at Bikaner, *Śatīpāñchābhikṣa* in 1799 A.D. and *Śatīpāñchābhikṣa* in 1802 A.D. at Jaipur.² The *Prakṛāntaśaṅkṣa* is the work of Umedachandra, pupil of Vāchaka Rāmachandra, written in 1817 A.D. In 1830 A.D., the pupil of Jinahamasani composed the *Śatīpāñchābhikṣa* at Jaipur.

From the sixteenth century A.D., Philosophical and Canonical works began to be written in Hindi when it became the language of the masses. Sumatīkṛti wrote the *Śatīpāñchābhikṣa* in 1568 A.D. in the mixed Gujarātī and Rājasthānī.³ In the sixteenth or seventeenth century A.D., Rājarama wrote a treatise on the Sanskrit word named *Samantapāñchābhikṣa* in Hindi prose.⁴ Pandita Akhayaśāyā Sīmaṇḍa, who lived in Jaipur in the seventeenth century A.D., prepared a commentary on the *Śatīpāñchābhikṣa* in Hindi prose. His *Chaturvīṃśatīpāñchābhikṣa* written in Hindi prose is also available.⁵

Pandita Todarāma was the reputed author of Hindi prose in the eighteenth century. He survived only upto the age of thirty; but even during this short period, he made valuable contributions to Jainism. At the age of fifteen, he wrote a letter full of spiritual ideas answering some difficult questions to the Śrāvaka of Mithan. He prepared commentaries on the hard and obscure works such as the *Caṇḍakāyaśaṅkṣa*, *Śatīpāñchābhikṣa*, *Kāyapāñchābhikṣa* and *Trilokaśaṅkṣa*. He began to write treatises on the *Parashūrasiddhānta* and *Ātmavivṛtana*, but they could not be finished as he was murdered. The commentary on the *Parashūrasiddhānta* was completed by Daulatārāma and the other on *Ātmavivṛtana* remained incomplete. His *Ātmavivṛtana* is an original and independent work which shines like a jewel in Indian literature. All these works are in Hindi prose. His son Gunanātha was also a scholar who wrote the *Samantapāñchābhikṣa*.⁶

Pandita Śivajībā hailed from Jaipur and composed the *Śatīpāñchābhikṣa* in 1761 A.D. His *Śatīpāñchābhikṣa* such as *Rāmāyaṇa*, *Chandogya*, *Bodhisattva*, *Parashūrasiddhānta*, *Ābhyaṅgārāṅgī* are also available. His

1. RB., III, No. 2.

2. Ibid.

3. *Anekānta*, XI, p. 312.4. *Vivṛtana*, I, p. 7.

5. Ibid., III, p. 9.

6. *Anekānta*, VI, No. 8.

work named *Tat'paratābhāṣaṇa* gives us information about the Tat'paratha sect found among the Jains.¹

Paṇḍita Dipachanda Sāha was a well-known scholar of the eighteenth century. In the beginning, he lived at Sangner but afterwards settled at Āmber. He is the author of several works such as *Anekānupakāśikā*, *Chandāna*, *Ātmanirūpaṇa*, *Y'namānta-parāṇa*, *Upadeśanānamālā*, *Jñānadarpaṇa*, *Anupūṇanā* and *Bhāṣāṭīkā*. Most of these works are found written in Hindi prose.² Kharāḍachanda Kālī wrote *Vachanikā* on several *Parasars* and *Chārvāsa*. Besides, he wrote a commentary known as *Sūhṛṇḍhāṇḍī* in Hindi on the work of Sakalakīrti in 1737 A.D.³

Paṇḍita Daulatārāma of Dausā wrote a *Vachanikā* in Hindi on the Sanskrit work, *Paṇḍitāra* of Pāṇḍe Jīmadāsa in 1720 A.D.⁴ Paṇḍita Devīdāsa Godhā, who was a native of Basū, near Jaipur, wrote a *Vachanikā* on Sanskrit work named *Vāḍ'antavāsanāmpaka* of Narendrasena in Hindi at Bhūsa in 1767 A.D. He is also the author of *Chandāraṇaṇa*, *Chandāna* and *Pravachanāra*.⁵ Bhogārāma Vijayakīrti wrote the *Mahābhāṣaṇa* in 1772 A.D.⁶

Jagachandra Chhāṣarā, author of the nineteenth century, had good command over both Sānsārit and Prākṛit. He made translations of several Sanskrit and Prākṛit works in Hindi between 1804 A.D. and 1813 A.D. He translated *Sarvārthasāḍhā* of Pūjapāda, *Pravachanānamālā* of Āchārya Mānikyanandi, *Draṇḍasāḍhā* of Nensichandātāchārya, *Sarvārthasāḍhāmpakā* of Svāmīkumāra, *Sarvasāraṇaṇa* of Āchārya Amritachanda, *Ātmanirūpaṇa* of Sumantabhadra, *Akūpāḍhā* of Kandeḍanda, *Jñānāraṇa* of Subhachandra and *Bhāṣāmanasāra*.⁷ His son Nandālāla was a scholar like his father. He began to write a treatise on the *Mahābhāṣa* in Hindi but expired before giving a finishing touch.⁸ Later on, it was completed by Rishabhānanda Nigōrya Paṇḍita Mannālāla Sāngalka, the chief disciple of Paṇḍita Jagachandra, translated *Chārvāsaṇa* into Hindi. He started the work of *Vachanikā* on the *Rājanārṇikā* but passed away before completing it.⁹

Pīrasādāsa Nigōrya, a scholar of the nineteenth century A.D., wrote *Vachanikā* on the *Jāṇasāmpakā* of Vāḍ'chāndīnāsurī and *Sarvasāraṇaṇa* of

1. JSAL, pp. 34-35.

2. *Anekānta*, XIII, Nos. 4, 5 and 7.

3. *Pīrasāḍī*, I, p. 46.

4. *Ibid.*, II, p. 39.

5. *Ibid.*, VI, p. 86.

6. *Hindī Jaina Bāhīnī Kā Sūhṛṇḍhāṇḍī Bīlāsa*, p. 200.

7. *Pīrasāḍī*, I, p. 100.

8. *Ibid.*,

9. *Ibid.*, p. 113.

Sakalakṛti.¹ Champūrāma of Jaipur composed the *Jainacharjastuti* in 1825 A.D.² Paplita Śaḍhaṅkha Kṣātrivāha is the author of *Tatvārthasūtrabhāṣā*, *Ugropurī-ārādhanaśikṣā*, *Kaṭhārasaṅgrahabhāṣāśikṣā* and *Saṃyaktattvabhāṣā*.³

Canonical and Philosophical works were also written in Rājasthānī language. Saṃyasaṇḍana, Jināraṣa, Jinasaṃhṛasori and Jīamala of Terāpanthī sect were well-known authors who wrote several works.⁴ The most important is *Abhyantaratna* of Jīamala written in sixty thousand śloka.

(2) PRIOR NARRATIVE LITERATURE OF THE JAINISM

Jaina literature is full of popular stories, tales and narratives. Jain scholars were good story tellers themselves; and, therefore, they have left for us numerous Indian tales which otherwise, would have been lost. These tales are found in Kathā, Kathākaśa, epics, Garita and the Purāṇas.

(i) KATHĀS AND KATHĀNĀKAS: Kathās and Kathānakas were written in Prākṛit, later in Sanskrit and afterwards in Hindi. They served the purpose of moral and religious instructions and also provided amusement and entertainment. Haribhadrasuri, who lived in the latter half of the eighth century A.D., has written the *Samarāṇḍīyakaṭhā* (*Samarāṇḍīyakaṭhā*) and *Dharmāṇḍīyaka* in Prākṛit.⁵ *Samarāṇḍīyakaṭhā* is a religious tale in nine sections which describe the cycle of nine lives through which the hero Samarāṇḍīya and his antagonist have to pass in succession as a result of their actions. *Samarāṇḍīyakaṭhā* is written in a simple and fluent narrative prose rarely interspersed with long descriptive passages in the ornate style of the Sanskrit writers. *Dharmāṇḍīyaka*, on the other hand, is composed entirely in verse containing 485 *gāthās* in a simple style. It is a good satire on popular Hinduism.

Haribhadra was followed by his pupil *Udayasānuri* who completed his great Kathā, the *Kaṇḍavāṇḍī*, at Jālor in 778 A.D. in the reign of Varmāraja Prasthita. It is a religious tale narrated in Prākṛit prose and verse on the pattern of the Sanskrit *Chandupākāya*. Some of its passages throw some light on the contemporary history of this region.⁶ Another great writer of

1. *Pīṇāpā*, I, p. 285.

2. *Hindi Jaina Sūtrās ke Sanskṛtīya Nibāṇ*, p. 209.

3. SVRSSG., p. 714.

4. Ed. Hermann Jacobi.

5. Published in the Singhī Jaina Series. See Vol. 20.

6. JBORS., March, 1928, p. 28.

this time is Siddhartha who completed his *Upasithhanaparakashaka* at Bhilamla in 900 A.D.¹ It is as much a work of philosophy as of poetry and is one of the finest allegories in any language. Written in simple and easily understandable Sanskrit, it must have appealed not only to scholars but also to the masses who cared probably more for the story than the allegory that underlay its structure.

The *Bharishanishakha* of Dhanapāla was probably written in Rajasthan because the poet was of Dhakkajā Varāna which seems to have originated from Rajasthan.² Another author of the same name Dhanapāla composed the *Tilakamāhārī* in 775 A.D. which may stand in comparison with the *Kādambarī* of Bana.³ Jirivāgasuri prepared the *Nirvāṇābhīṣhāṇakā*.⁴ *Sarasaṇḍarbhaṭhā* was written at Chandivani near Abu in 1038 A.D. by Dhānēcivarsuri, pupil of Jirivarsuri.⁵ The *Ratanābhīṣhāṇakā* was composed at Cloner by Jayachandāsuri.⁶ In the twelfth century, Śiṅhukavi wrote the *Paryamāṇā* at Bumbhapavala, near Sirsi.⁷ Visakhaḍaga composed the *Paryastarakāṭhaka* at Jaisalmer in the thirteenth century.⁸

Sakalakīrti, who lived in the fifteenth century, is the author of *Bhānupāṭharīṇishāṇakā*.⁹ The writer of the *Adbhūṭakā* is Śiṅhachandra, the Paṭṭadhāra of Padmraodhī, who separated from Sakalakīrti.¹⁰ *Nandībhīṣhāṇakā* and *Aśvīnībhīṣhāṇakā* were written by Śiṅhachandra, pupil of Vijayakīrti, in the sixteenth century.¹¹ In 1469 A.D., Bhagāraka Somakīrti of Kōshth Sārogha wrote the *Saptarāṇabhīṣhāṇakā*. The *Saṅkhyāyogabhīṣhāṇakā* was prepared by Kamakalakā in 1598 A.D. at Mena.¹² Samayasandasa is the writer of the *Chātmāṇībhāṇakā* and *Kāśāṇishāṇakā*.¹³ *Damodarābhīṣhāṇakā* was composed by Guṇavīrya.¹⁴ Bhāraachandra Upādhyāya is the author of *Kādambarīparādhyaṭhā*, *Ratanābhīṣhāṇakā* and *Uśakābhīṣhāṇakā*.¹⁵ The *Aśvīnībhīṣhāṇakā* and *Chandrabhīṣhāṇakā* were written respectively by Bhagāraka Surendrakīrti¹⁶ and Bhagāraka Devendrakīrti.¹⁷ Upādhyāya Lakṣmīvallabha, pupil of Lakṣmīkīrti, composed the *Pāṇḍava*.

1. JSSI, p. 185.

2. JSAI., pp. 407-468.

3. Ibid., pp. 468-60.

4. JSSI, p. 208.

5. Ibid.

6. RB, III, No. 3.

7. Ibid.

8. JSSI, p. 415.

9. RJSBGS, p. 22.

10. JGPS, No. 62.

11. RJSBGS, pp. 46 & 247.

12. JSSI, p. 604.

13. Ibid., p. 588.

14. RB III, No. 2.

15. JSSI, p. 500.

16. RJSBGS, p. 20.

17. Ibid., p. 21.

māṇḍūkī at Rini, near Bikaner in 1639 A.D.¹ The *Uvarūpādattakathā* and *Panchamīkathā* were prepared by Meghavijaya in the eighteenth century.² Khamākalyāṇa is the composer of *Chaturvāṅśakāvalīkāpāradikathā* and the *Abhayaṇīpādikathā*.³

There is quite a large story literature in Hindi created by Jaina authors. Bhalana Rāyananda wrote the *Hamantakathā* in 1559 A.D., *Uvarūpādattakathā* in 1576 A.D. and *Nīladasoppannīpādikathā*.⁴ The *Pañc kī kathā* was composed by Chhama Theohya of Mānasaabad in 1625 A.D.⁵ In 1663 A.D., Palmanābha Kāyastha of Bundi composed the *Yashodharachampūbhāṣikathā*.⁶ *Jyeshthamūrtikathā* was written by Kluṣṭhachanda Kākā in 1725 A.D. *Dharmabuddhikathā* is the story of Paṇḍita Bāhmanāṇa written in 1745 A.D.⁷ *Kāvalīpādikathā* was written by Khamākalyāṇa⁸ and Jivārāja composed the *Mamukāvalīkathā* in 1807 A.D. at Bikaner.⁹

(ii) KATHAKA: Jains have made several collections of tales known as the *Kathakā*. Harīchandra is known to have written a *Kathakā* in the eighth century A.D.¹⁰ Jinalāsa, the pupil of Bhagīraka Sahasāśrī, is the author of another *Kathakā*.¹¹ Bhagīraka Devendrakīrti prepared the *Vratikathākālā*.¹² Jodharāja Godikī wrote the *Kathakā* in 1663 A.D. and the *Kamarpādikāvalī* in 1667 A.D.¹³ *Paryātrantakathakā* is the work of Paṇḍita Daulnarāṇa written in 1726 A.D.¹⁴ Kluṣṭhachanda composed the *Vratikathakā* in 1726 A.D.¹⁵

(iii) ROMANCES: Jains have not only adopted the epic themes such as the Kṛishṇa and Rāma legend and others of Hindus but they have also written their own original epics. The earliest of this kind is the Prākṛit epic *Padmacharita* by the poet Vināyaka. It is said to be written 312 years after the *nirvāṇa* of Mahāvīra. This is the Jaina *Rāmāyaṇa* and served as the model for the others. Hemachandra also wrote the Jaina *Rāmāyaṇa*.¹⁶ In 1595 A.D., the *Devanīrāmāyaṇa* was composed by Devavijaya at Srīmīla.¹⁷ The

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| 1. RB III, No. 2. | 2. JGG, p. 58. | 3. Ibid., p. 61. | 4. JGPS, p. 62. |
| 5. PS, p. 281. | | 6. Ibid., p. 250. | |
| 7. Hindi Jaina Sāhitya kī Sainikakṣipta Itihāsa, p. 219. | | 8. Ibid. | |
| 9. RB III, No. 2. | 10. JGG, p. 6. | 11. JGPS, (Int.). | |
| 12. RJSPGS, p. 22. | 13. Jaina Sāhitya kī Sainikakṣipta Itihāsa, p. 115. | | |
| 14. Vitarāṇī, II, p. 30. | 15. Ibid. | | |
| 16. The Jains in the History of Indian Literature, p. 12. | 17. RB III, No. 2. | | |

Rasikavans written in Rājasthānī by Vidyākūśala and Cakrādhara is also available.¹

(20) **CHARITRAS AND PURĀNAS:** Narrative literature also consists of Charitra and Purāṇas, which are the lengthy biographies of the Tirthankaras, Cakravartis and Rishis of the past. Such works were written in Rajasthan from time to time. The *Minapattcharitra*, *Yashovacharita* and *Kanakhacharita* are the works written in the eighth century by Haribhadra.² The *Chandakacharitra* was composed by Siddhasi in 917 A.D., twelve years after the composition of the *Upamitiharyaprabandha*.³ Jivēvarasuri is the author of *Viracharitra*⁴ and *Ganadharaśrībhaktika* and *Ganadharaśrīpatri* were composed by Jinadatasuri.⁵ Devachandrasuri wrote the *Śatīśāhacharita* in 1103 A.D.⁶ Its extent is *raso dīkas* and the language is Prākṛit. His disciple the great Hemachandra is the author of the *Triśatīśāhacharita* which is the store-house of stories and tales. It describes the lives of sixtythree persons in ten cantos.

The *Yashovacharitra* is the work of Jinapāla Upādhyāya written in the thirteenth century A.D.⁷ Sumatīnāgi, pupil of Jinapāla, wrote a lengthy commentary on the *Ganadharaśrībhaktika*.⁸ The *Udayaśrībhadracharita* was written at Jaisalmer by Puruṣābhadrānāgi, pupil of Jinapāli. His *Minakacharitra* and *Kritānupacharita* are also available.⁹ In 1218 A.D., the poet Lakṣhṇa composed the *Jinacharita* at Vilāspura near Kota where he came for safety from Muslim invasions from Tribhuvanagar (Modern Tehnagarh), near Bharatpur.¹⁰ Lakṣhṇanaka composed the *Pratyakṣabuddhacharita* in 1234 A.D. at Palampur.¹¹ Chandatīlaka began to write the *Akṣayakṣatīchārītra* at Barmer and finished it at Khanbhat in 1225 A.D.¹² The *Narmadacharita* is the work of Virachandrasuri in 1277 A.D.¹³ The poetess Gupāsanatīlaka Mahatārā, pupil of Jivēvarasuri, composed the *Añjanāṇḍarīcharita* in Prākṛit in 1549 A.D.¹⁴

1. SP V, No. 4.
2. JSSI, p. 162.
3. Ibid., p. 186.
4. Ibid., p. 208.
5. Ibid., p. 238.
6. Catalogue of MSS, in Jaisatmer Bhaṇḍārā, p. 46.
7. JSSI, p. 395.
8. Ibid., p. 306.
9. Catalogue of MSS in Jaisatmer Bhaṇḍārā, pp. 3 & 34.
10. Amśhata VIII, p. 400. Pt. Paramānanda Śāstri had identified Vilāspura with Willamungar in Ton district of UP. Actually it is Vilāspura near Kota.
11. Catalogue of MSS in Jaisatmer Bhaṇḍārā, p. 23.
12. JSSI, p. 311.
13. RB III, No. 2.
14. Catalogue of MSS in Jaisatmer Bhaṇḍārā, p. 40.

There is a Jaina inscription entitled *Uttamashikharaprasasti* by Siddhasuri of Mādhura Saṅgha incised on a rock 15 feet long by 5 feet broad at Bāndia.¹ Pandita Vāḍhara wrote the *Tīrthakhyatīkāra*.² Padmanandī, who flourished in the fifteenth century A.D., wrote the *Pradhamānandacharita*.³ The *Alakānandacharita*, *Yashovaracharita*, *Tīrthabharacharita*, *Sahasnandacharita*, *Sakamānandacharita*, *Vaidhyanandacharita*, *Dhanyakamānandacharita*, *Jambhūnandacharita* and *Śrīpālacharita* are the works of Bhagāraka Sakalākīrti.⁴ His pupil and younger brother Brahma Jinādāsa composed the *Jambhūnandacharita*, *Rāmacharita* and *Haripadacharita*.⁵ Bhagāraka Samakīrti of Kāṇḍhā Saṅgha composed the *Pradhamānandacharita* in 1474 A.D. and the *Yashovaracharita* was written by him in Mewar in 1479 A.D. The authors of the *Śrīnandacharita*, *Chandraprabhacharita*, *Jambhūnandacharita*, *Kamānandacharita*, *Chandnandacharita* and *Rāmanandacharita* is Subhachandra, the pupil of Vijayakīrti.⁶ Thākura, who was the disciple of Bhagāraka Viśālākīrti of Nagari, composed the *Alakānandakāvalīk* in 1595 A.D.⁷

In the seventeenth century A.D. *Jambhūnandacharita* was written by the poet Rājumalla.⁸ Pandita Jinādāsa, the pupil of Sakalākīrti, composed the *Vaidhyanandacharita* in 1551 A.D.⁹ *Nandacharita* is the work of the poet Jagannātha who was a disciple of Bhagāraka Narendrakīrti.¹⁰ The great poet Meghaviṇaya of the eighteenth century composed the *Laghvaracharitāvalīk*, *paracharita*.¹¹ Upādhyāya Kāmanākalyāṇa wrote the *Yashovaracharita* and *Śrīpālacharita*. While writing the *Kamānandacharita* at Bikaner, he died in 1816 A.D. That incomplete work was finished by Sumatchandana in 1817 A.D. at Jaipur. In 1811 A.D., Jayakīrti wrote the *Śrīpālacharita* at Jaisalmer.¹²

In medieval times, Purāṇas and Chāritras of the Prākṛit and Sāṁskṛit languages were translated into Hindi language and even some fresh were also written. Brahma Jinādāsa composed the *Ādipurāṇa*, *Jambhūnandacharita* and *Yashovaracharita* in mixed Guṇarīti and Rājasthānī.¹³ The poet Rājumalla, who settled at Sangar in his last days, wrote the *Pradhamā-*

1. PRAS, vol., 1905-6, p. 58.

3. JGPS, p. 21 (Int.).

6. Ibid., pp. 43 and 78 (Int.).

9. Ibid., IV, No. 2.

12. JSST, p. 663.

4. JGPS, p. 11.

7. JSAT, p. 533.

10. JGPS, No. 45.

13. RB, 111, No. 2.

2. JSAT, p. 136.

5. Ibid., pp. 7, 15 and 142.

8. *Avakānta* III, p. 183.

11. Ibid., p. 40 (Int.).

14. PS, pp. 203, 213 and 248.

starting in 1571 A.D.¹ The *Nandīśvaracharita* of 1633 A.D. is the work of Bhagānaka Narayanaśrī.² Jadhavīja Godhī of Sangner made the *Padmānandacharita* in 1664 A.D.³ In 1665 A.D., the *Padmānandacharita* was written by Bhagānaka Devendrakṛṣṇ of Idar.⁴ The *Śrīchārita* is the work of the poet Rāyachanda written in 1636 A.D.⁵ The *Harimandiparṇa* was written in 1712 A.D. at Amber by Nemichanda, pupil of Jagatśrī.⁶ In 1724 A.D., Lakshmanāśa composed the *Yashwanandacharita*.⁷ Kharāchanda Kālā of Sangner translated the *Harimandiparṇa*, *Padmāparṇa*, *Uttamāparṇa*, *Dharmachandacharita*, *Jamūnāchārī* and *Vaidhātacharita* into Hindi.⁸ *Bhadrachandacharita* is the work of Rājendrasīha who belonged to Sangner.⁹ Bhagānaka Vīryakṛṣṇ of Amber composed the *Śrīchārita* in 1775 A.D.¹⁰ In 1804 A.D., Vīryanātha of Todhnagar translated the *Yashwanandaparṇa* in Hindi as desired by Kṛpānātha and Śrījāna, sons of Jāmadachanda who was the Dīvāna of Jaipur.¹¹

Narayanā Bīkṣū, the cashier of the Wārsapur state, is the author the *Padmānandacharita*, *Jivandharacharita*, and *Jamūnāchārī*.¹² *Harimandiparṇa*, *Śrīchārī* and *Harishyāmalacharita*, are the works of Sevārāma Jōṛā.¹³ Pandita Lalachanda Śāhānārāyā composed the *Varāṇasacharita*, *Uttamāparṇa* and other works.¹⁴ *Chandīchārī* was written by Pandita Manmādhā in 1814 A.D.¹⁵ Pandita Dandacharya of Barwa settled at Jaipur where he translated the *Ādiparṇa*, *Padmāparṇa*, *Harimandiparṇa* and *Śrīchārī* into Hindi.¹⁶

(v) **RĀSAS:** Rāsas are long ballads which are found in large number in Hindi literature from the thirteenth century A.D. Āsiga wrote the *Prasādhī* and *Chandachārī* in about 1500 A.D. at Jaipur.¹⁷ Several Rāsas are known to have been written by Śāhābada, Abhayasīha, Lakshmanāśa, Dharmakāśa etc.¹⁸ Balaṇa Vinodā is the author of *Yashwanandacharita*, *Ādiparṇa*, *Śrīchārī*, *Samachārī*, *Karakhāṇī*, *Karmā*,

1. *Vīramāṇī*, II, p. 232.

2. *PS*, p. 233.

3. *Vīramāṇī*, I, p. 71.

4. *PS*, p. 239.

5. *Ibid.*, p. 266.

6. *Ibid.*, p. 279.

7. *Ibid.*, p. 249.

8. *Vīramāṇī*, I, p. 48.

9. *Hindi Jaina Sahitya kā Samakṣipta Itihāsa*, p. 48.

10. *Ibid.*, p. 206.

11. *Hindi Jaina Sahitya kā Samakṣipta Itihāsa*, p. 206.

12. *Ibid.* 13. *Ibid.*

14. *Vīramāṇī*, I, p. 156.

15. *Ibid.*, II, p. 39.

16. *Ibid.*

17. *Ādiparṇāṇī*, III, p. 290.

18. *Śrī Padmānandachārī Abhinandanaṅgaṇṇī*, pp. 124-125.

upākhāṇas, *Arīṣāṇas*, *Pradyumnānand* and *Dharmapālānand*.¹ Bhojra Kāyamala composed the *Nandānandānand* in 1568 A.D. and *Jagpalānand* in 1573 A.D.² Bhagvānaka Sumatīkīrti, pupil of Jnanabhashana, wrote the *Dharmaparibhāṣinī*.³ Jñānānand and Kānakānandānand wrote respectively the *Arīṣānandānand* and *Sevānandānand*.⁴ All these *Kānand* are written in the language which is a mixture of Rājasthānī and Gujaraṭī.

(vi) PĀCCHAYASTHĪA LITERATURE: Jains have taken a great interest even in important works of profane narrative literature. *Pācchayasthīas* were written by Jain authors from time to time to facilitate the grasp of difficult problems of life. Purnabhadra completed the *Pācchayasthīa* in 1119 A.D.⁵ A Jain monk, Maghavijaya wrote the *Pācchayasthīa* in 1660 A.D.⁶ The *Pācchayasthīa* was also written by Baddachhānāja in Rājasthānī language.⁷

(3) KĀVYAS, MAHĀKĀVYAS AND OTHER SMALL POEMS

Jain teachers cultivated the art of poetry not so much for its own sake as to carry the message of the Tirthānukāmas to the people in a form they liked the best. They have written a large number of such works. Some of them rank quite high among the books of this class and enrich poetical literature.

Dharmapāl is the famous poet of the tenth century A.D. In his last days, he seems to have settled at Santhar where he composed his Apabhraṃśa poem '*Antyagatīya Kīrti Mahādeva Uvāṇa*' in praise of the Saryāpura image of Mahādeva. Earlier probably at Dīdār, he had written the *Rājabhāgavāṇanātha*, *Mahāvīrasūtra* and Sanskrit commentary on a poem written by his younger brother, Subhāna, in honour of the 24 Tirthānukāmas.⁸ Both the style and the language of his poetry are elegant and charming. Dharmakṛpānand, pupil of Jñānārāma Sūri, composed the *Śaṅkarapāramitānand*.⁹ Another disciple of Jñānārāmanand, named Jinachandrasūri is the author of *Śaṅkarapāramitānand*.¹⁰ This work appears to have been very popular, for it is referred to in several books. Jinavallabhasūri was a profound scholar who had equal command both over Sanskrit and Prakrit. The *Śrīgāyatrīśloka*, *Śaṅkarapāramitānand* and *Cāraṇakīya* are known to be his works. He is also the author of several *Sūtras*.¹¹ His Śrāvaka Padmānanda was also a poet who wrote the *Śaṅkarapā*

1. JGPS, p. 12 (Int.).

2. JGPS, p. 52 (Int.).

3. Ibid., p. 75.

4. SVRSSQ, p. 711.

5. JISL, p. 346.

6. Ibid., p. 653.

7. SP V, No. 4.

8. JSSI, p. 206. See also JSS, III, 1.

9. JGG, p. 14.

10. Catalogue of MSS in Jahangir Bhawan, p. 21.

11. JSSI, p. 232.

Jetaka in Sanskrit.¹ This book is different from the work of Bhadrabāsi. It is less emotional but the language is bold and polished. To Vāgbhata of the same period is assigned the *Nandīśataka* dealing with the life of Nandīśāka. Vāgbhata was the son of Chhāḍaka of Prāgyāṭa caste and of Abhīdhātupana.² The Prasaśi of the Bīṇaka inscription³ dated 1170 A.D. has been written in the refined Sanskrit language by Gopalandra who must have written other works but they are not available.

Jinadārasuri, pupil of Jinavallabhasuri, was such an influential Achārya that he was considered as the *Kalpavṛkṣa* of Marudhara. He wrote in Prākṛit, Sanskrit and Apabhraṃśa. The *Chaitanyavandanaśloka*⁴ and *Chaitānīśataka* are his poetical works. Besides, he composed the *Sarvāśīlābhyaṣetra*, and *Vijñānamūrtipraya*.⁵ Hemachandrasuri was also a marvellous poet who wrote *Dattatrayastotra* in Sanskrit and *Kaṇṭhapāṇḍaravāra* in Prākṛit. These two works are quite well known in Indian literature. Besides, he wrote *Vīṭarāgastotra* and *Alakādevastotra*.⁶

Paṇḍita Āśadhara is also the well-known poet who wrote the *Uparatīśavarābhūṭa*, *Mahābhāṣa*, *Rājīmatīśpandanika*, *Ekāṇḍīśṛī*, with the *Svapṛaśloka*. His work of lesser importance are *Abhāṣapāṇḍitī*, *Abhīśekavidhī*, *Jinacharitrānūsa*, *Akṛpādāśmṛatīkā*, *Jināśāpāṇḍitī*, *Pañchadaśānūsaṇḍī*, *Śrāvaṇanūsaṇḍitā*, *Siddhachakrapāṇḍī*, *Vīṭarāgastotra* and *Pratīdīpīstava*.⁷ The commentary on the *Devyāṅga* of Hemachandra was written by *Altharavīḍaka*, pupil of Jinakēśarasuri at Pāṇāpura in 1215 A.D.⁸ *Phaṇḍita-mahābhāṣa* written in the fourteenth century A.D. by Nāvachandra describes the heroic deeds of Hamaṇṭa who bravely fought with the Muslims at Ranthambhor.⁹

The Jain scholars composed a number of *Stāvas* in praise of the Tīrthaṅkaras and Achāryas. Padmanandi composed the *Jīvanāpārmanāthastāvana* and *Śīlīnāpārmanāth*.¹⁰ The *Vīṭarāgastotra*, *Śāntipracētra*, *Rāma-pārmanāthastotra*, *Padmanāṇḍipāṇḍitī*, *Kaṇṭhīśloka*, *Uparatīśṛī*, *Parvātīnāpārmanāthastotra*, *Jīvanāpārmanāthastāvanāślokaśloka*, *Pañchāṇḍitī* and *Yatībhāṣaśloka*¹¹ are also attributed to him, but it is not definite whether they

1. JSSS, p. 294.

2. JSAT, p. 483.

3. II, XXIV, p. 84.

4. JSSS, p. 233.

5. Ibid., pp. 299-300.

6. JSAT, pp. 134-135.

7. JSSS, p. 410.

8. Edited by N. J. Kirtane, Education Society Press, Bombay, 1872.

9. JGPS, p. 20.

10. RJSBGS, p. 411.

an of this Padmanand or some one else of this name because there is no mention of his teacher Prabhāchandra in them. His pupil Subhāchandra wrote the *Āśāśāstram*.¹ About *Subhāganyūpaniṣad*, *Prabhāśāstram*, *Nirbhāganyūpaniṣad* and *Tīrtolopya*,² we are not definite whether they are of this Subhāchandra or of Subhāchandra of Idar. Jinachandra, the pupil of Subhāchandra, composed the *Chakrasiddhāntasūtra*.³ The *Chakrasiddhāntatāthakāyaśāstra* was written by Bhagāraka Śaṅkhalikṛī.⁴ His disciple named Brahma Jirādāśī composed the *Jamūnātīrthpūjā*. Jīrādāśībhūṣaṇ⁵ is the author of *Naminiśāntaśāstrapūjā*,⁶ *Prabhāśāśāstrāṭīkā*, *Dakṣiṇāmūrtiśāstra*, *Ādīśāstrapūjā*, *Prakāśamūrtiśāstra*, *Sarvavāṭīpūjā*, *Rishimūrtalopya* and *Jinastuti*.

The *Pravartitādhāra* was written in 1412 A.D. by Kirtatmasena.⁷ In the same year, Chakratmanagari wrote a *Pravartitādhāra* of Bhāṇvīra in Chitā.⁸ His one more Kāvya named *Dharmapūjā* is also available.⁹ In 1416 A.D., Uddharāya Jayasāgara made amendments in the *pratikṛti* of the temple of Parivānātha and composed the *pratikṛti* of the temple of Saminātha at Jaisalmer.¹⁰

In the sixteenth century also, a number of Kāvya were written by Jaina authors in Rajasthan. The *Padmānabhakāyaśāstrāṭīkā* was written by Subhāchandra, pupil of Vijayakṛī of Idar on the inspiration of Bhagāraka Śaṅkhalikṛī.¹¹ It is a commentary on the *Pravartitādhāra* of Viṇāśa. His other works are *Tīrtolopyaśāstrāṭīkā*, other *pūjā* and *śāstra*. Bhagāraka Prabhāchandra, probably a pupil of Jinachandra, wrote the *Āśāśāstram*, *Kamūrtiśāstram* and some *pūjā*.¹² Bhagāraka Dharmachandra, made the *Kamūrtiśāstrāṭīkā*.¹³ Bhagāraka Chandralekṛī is the author of the *Āśāśāstram*, *Vidhāyāśāstra* and some *Pūjā*.¹⁴

Guravāya is specially famous for his commentaries on several literary works. Some of them were written in Rajasthan such as *Chandrapūjā* in 1584 A.D., *Nalānāpantichandrapūjā*. In 1589 A.D., *Rachanāśāstrā* in 1590 A.D. and *L. āśāśāstrā* in 1602 A.D. His other notable Sanskrit commentaries available are *Karmachandrasaṅgrahāṇḍikā*, *Indrapūjāpāṭalāśāstrā*, *Pravartitādhāra*, *Āśāśāstrā*, *Dakṣiṇāmūrti*.

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| 1. <i>Āśāśāstra</i> , XII, No. 10, | 2. HJSBGS, p. 423. | 3. <i>Āśāśāstra</i> , III, No. 2. |
| 4. HJSBGS, p. 424. | 5. JSAL, p. 530. See also HJSBGS, p. 405. | |
| 6. JSS, p. 471. | 7. JRAS, Vol. 63, Yr. 1908. | 8. RB, III, No. 2. |
| 9. NJI, No. 2112 & 2154. | 10. JSAL, p. 530. | 11. HJSBGS, p. 412. |
| 12. <i>Ibid.</i> , p. 419. | 13. <i>Ibid.</i> , p. 402. | |

the *Padāpārīkṣā*.¹ In 1679 A.D., Dharmavardhana wrote the *Padāpārīkṣā-śāhitya-samgrahāṇī* and other *stotra*.² The great poet Jñānabha is the author of *Lakṣhāḍhye*, and he also composed several *stotra*.³

Numerous *poet* are ascribed to Bhāṣārka Devendrakīrti.⁴ It is not definite whether he belongs to the sect of Ekai or Jainai but he definitely lived in Rajasthan. Brahma Rāyamalla composed the *Śāhitya-samgrahāṇī* and *Pratīkṣā-śāhitya*. The poet Jagannātha wrote the *Śāhitya-samgrahāṇī*, *Chaturvāṇī*, *Śāhitya-samgrahāṇī* and *Sakhamāṇī*. His *Śāhitya-samgrahāṇī* and *Nandīśāhitya-samgrahāṇī* are also known but they are not available.⁵ His brother Vālidāsa was also a poet who wrote the *Jñānabha-stotra*⁶ and *Kaṇṇakīrti*.⁷ Bhāṣārka Surendrakīrti⁸ and Bhāṣārka Vijayakīrti⁹ are known to have composed several *poet* in praise of Tīrthaṅkaras.

Rāmavijaya composed the *Chaturvāṇī* in 1750 A.D. at Jaipur, which has been published with the treatise of his pupil named Khamā kalyāṇa. His *Śāhitya-samgrahāṇī* and *Pratīkṣā-śāhitya-samgrahāṇī* are also available.¹⁰ His pupil Upādhyāya Khamā kalyāṇa wrote the *Śāhitya-samgrahāṇī* with *Śāhitya-samgrahāṇī* at Jaipur in 1790 A.D.¹¹ In 1801 A.D., Paryāyāṇī¹² and Śivachandā¹³ have written the *Chaturvāṇī* and the *Pratīkṣā-śāhitya-samgrahāṇī* respectively.

In medieval times, Jaina literature began to be created in Hindi and Rajasthani languages. In the fifteenth century, Sakalakīrti composed the *Śāhitya-samgrahāṇī*, *Nandīśāhitya* and *Pratīkṣā-śāhitya*.¹⁴ His younger brother Brahma Jñānā wrote several *poet* and *gr̥th* in mixed Rājasthānī and Gajasthānī.¹⁵ Alhayanāya Śāhitya of the seventeenth century A.D. is the author of *Śāhitya-samgrahāṇī*, *Kalyāṇa-samgrahāṇī* and *Pratīkṣā-śāhitya-samgrahāṇī*.¹⁶ Hemarāja Goliḍī translated the *Pratīkṣā-śāhitya* of Kundkunda in Hindi verses in 1667 A.D.¹⁷ Dillīkṣā of Bundi composed the *Śāhitya-samgrahāṇī* in 1711 A.D.¹⁸ Anandāyāya of Merta is the author of *Chaturvāṇī-samgrahāṇī* which is a highly spiritual work.¹⁹

1. RB III, No. 2. 2. Ibid. 3. Ibid. 4. RJSBS, p. 407. 5. JGPS, p. 38 (Int.).

6. This *stotra* has been published by Manlāchandra Granthamallī.

7. JGPS, No. 141.

8. RJSBS, p. 426.

9. Ibid., p. 420.

10. RB III, No. 2.

11. Ibid.

12. Ibid.

13. Ibid.

14. RJSBS, p. 424.

15. Ibid., p. 404. See also JGPS, p. 12 (Int.).

16. RJSBS, p. 397.

17. *Anekānta*, XI, p. 348.

18. PS, p. 222.

19. *Vivāṇī*, II, p. 77.

śāra, Dvādaśāślokaṭī, Kalīprasaṅgā, Dvādaśamūlīyā caṇa Kāśyapāślokaṭī, Karmadhāṭī, Paṇḍitāṭī, Dvādaśaṃskāślokaṭī, Saṃskṛtāślokaṭī, Āśvameśāślokaṭī etc. Jīvakarṇa composed several *śāras* and *śāra*. *Prasādhātī* *Champi* was also written by him. Jīvanamūlavarī composes various *śāras* and *śāras* containing about fifty or sixty thousand *śāras*. Jīvanā was a great poet of the Rājasthānī language and composed about one lakh *śāras*. Dalpatavijaya is the author of *Kṣemīkṛmāṇa*. *Govindāślokaṭī* and *Padmavīślokaṭī* were written respectively by Hemachandra and Lalohacharya. Somasundara composed a poem on *Ekakṣīkṛmāṇa*. The other important poetical works written in Rājasthānī language are *Bhāratīkṛmāṇaślokaṭī*, *Amaraślokaṭī*, *Udayakṛmāṇaślokaṭī*, *Kāśyapāślokaṭī*, *Dvādaśāślokaṭī* and *Kāśyapāślokaṭī*.

(4) SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL LITERATURE

The contributions of Jains to the scientific and technical literature are also considerable.

(i) **ALAKṢĪRA (POETRY):** As the Jain poets wrote numerous works of poetry in high flown *Kāvya* style, it was natural for them to write *Alakṣīkṛmāṇa*. Hemachandra wrote the *Kṛtyakṛmāṇa* with his own commentary called the *Alakṣīkṛmāṇa*.¹ Pandita Alakṣīra wrote a treatise on the *Kṛtyakṛmāṇa* of the famous Āchārya Rādhana but it is not available.² Vijādhara, son of Nandamūrti of Mewar, wrote the *Kṛtyakṛmāṇa* with a commentary of his own called *Kṛtyakṛmāṇa* in about the fourteenth or fifteenth century.³ Viśveśa, minister of the king Rājavardha of Todānagara composed the *Kṛtyakṛmāṇa*, a treatise on the *Kṛtyakṛmāṇa*.⁴ Works on poetics were written also in Rājasthānī language such as *Vijādharaślokaṭī*, *Vijādharaślokaṭī* and *Rādhanaślokaṭī*.

(ii) **GRAMMAR:** Knowledge of grammar is also necessary in order to have mastery over literature. With this object in view, works on grammar were written by Jain scholars from time to time. Panditajagannāth, brother of Jīvakarṇa, wrote a comprehensive Sanskrit and Prakrit Grammar, the *Prakṛtīkṛmāṇa*, at Jabalpur in 1221 A.D. after consulting some other works.⁵

1. SVRSSG, pp. 703-722.

2. JSS1, p. 310.

3. JSAI, p. 136.

4. Ibid., p. 480.

5. JGPS, No. 141.

6. SVRSSG, p. 707.

7. Catalogue of MSS in Sanskrita Bhāṇḍāra, p. 10.

Hemachandra, *son* of Kumārapāla, was another great grammarian. His grammar known as the *Vāṇībhāṣanīkāraṇa* is a well-known work on the subject. Hemachandra wrote his grammar by the orders of King Jayasiddha who had possessed for him eight other grammatical works from the library of Samvart in Kāśmīra. It is divided into eight chapters. The first seven deal with Sanskrit and the last one with various Prakrits and Apabhraṃśa. The author himself wrote two commentaries on his work, a shorter and a longer one; besides an *Upasāhita*, a *Dharmapāṭha* and *Lingamāṭhāna*.¹ Jayakīrti is the author of *Cāṇāḍimāṭhāna*.² Jayakīrti seems to be the same person as mentioned in the Chitrapath inscription of 1152 A.D.³ In this inscription, he has been described as the teacher of Bāṇakīrti. Paṇḍita Āśādhiara is the author of *Kriyākalāpa*.⁴

In the sixteenth century, a Prakrit grammar known as *Chintamani* was written by Bhagīratha Subhadracharya.⁵ Śivāditya wrote commentaries on old grammars such as *Lingamāṭhāna*, *Upasāhita* and *Abhidharmamāṭhāna*. His other independent works on grammar are *Chandahārasaṅgrahāṭhāna* and *Śāntarāgoppanīṣaṅga*.⁶ Jayatama Kāśhīnāṭhāṭhāṇī.⁷ Samayachandana wrote a treatise on the *Prithivīśāstra* in 1591 A.D.⁸ Sahasakīrti was also a great grammarian who wrote *Sāntarāgoppanī* in 1624 A.D. and *Śāntarāgoppanī* and *Nāṭhāṭhāṇī*.⁹ Udayakīrti made the *Paṇḍitaśāstra* in 1624 A.D.¹⁰ The *Cāṇāḍimāṭhāna* of Lāṭhāyachandana is also available. The poet Rāyamalla wrote the *Cāṇāḍimāṭhāna* and *Paṇḍita* in Hindi.¹¹ The works on grammar such as *Chandahārasaṅgrahāṭhāna*, *Śāntarāgoppanī* and *Hemachandra* were composed by Meghavijaya.¹² Chandrakīrti wrote *Śāntarāgoppanī* on the *Śāntarāgoppanī*.¹³ His disciple Harshakīrti was also the grammarian who wrote the works namely *Śāntarāgoppanī*, *Dharmapāṭha*, *Śāntarāgoppanī* and *Śrīkubodhāṭhāṇī*.¹⁴

The poet Subhadracharya composed the *Cāṇāḍimāṭhāna* in 1769 A.D. at Jaipur during the reign of Prithvirāja.¹⁵ Kūśāḍimāṭhāṇī and Rājācharya wrote the *Paṇḍitaśāstra* and *Paṇḍitaśāstra* respectively in Rājasthān language.

1. JSS, pp. 392-96.

2. JGPS, No. 60.

3. This inscription has been published in Epigraphia Indica.

4. JSAI, p. 135.

5. Ibid., p. 633.

6. RB III, No. 2.

7. JGG, p. 40.

8. Ibid., p. 60.

9. RB III, No. 2.

10. Anukāṇṭha IV, No. 2.

11. NPP, Vol. 65, No. 4.

12. RB III, No. 2.

13. JGG, p. 50.

14. PS, p. 213.

15. SVRSC, p. 700.

16. Ibid.

Other works written in this language are *Radalikabhi*, *Uktimuktakara*, *Uktimuktasūtrapa*, *Kṛmāntakāśikāśāstra*, *Pañcāsanādikāśikāśāstra*, *Mānasaśāstrāntakāśikā*, *Sāmantakāśikāśāstra*, *Piṅgavāraṇa*, *Dakṣaśāstrakāśikā* and *Śatvātāntakāśikāśāstra*.¹

(iii) LEXICOGRAPHY: Closely connected with grammar is lexicography. Hemachandra is also the author of the lexicographical works which he compiled as supplements to his grammar. His *Līnganūṭtama* is accompanied by his commentary. Besides that, he wrote four lexicons: *Bhīṣṭānūṭtama*, *Amṛtānūṭtama*, *Dakṣiṇānūṭtama* and *Nāgānūṭtama*, all of them, except perhaps the last, accompanied by his own commentaries.² Jinabhadrasūri, pupil of Jinatillabhadrasūri, composed the *Aṅgavijñānamūlīkā*.³ *Aṅgavijñānamūlīkā* was written by Padma Śākhara but it is not available.⁴ In 1597 A.D., Jīnaratīka made a commentary on the *Nāgavijñānamūlīkā*.⁵ His disciple named Śrīvallabha wrote a treatise on the *Yāgyavalkya* of Jinavāsuri in 1598 A.D. and *Sāradhānūṭtama* was made by him on *Bhīṣṭānūṭtama*.⁶

(iv) GEOGRAPHICAL WORKS: Jaina scholars also wrote some geographical works but they are not accurate. Haribhadrasūri composed *Lakṣmīnīkāśikānūṭtama* in the eighth century A.D.⁷ *Jambhikānūṭtama* was written in the tenth century by Padmanandi at Barah in Kozh state probably during the reign of Saktisinha of Thar in Mewar.⁸ Vījayaśūdra made the *Kāśikānūṭtama* at Pāli in the fourteenth century.⁹ In 1588 A.D., Puṅgyasūgata Mahopādhyāya composed the *Jambhikānūṭtama* at Jaisalmer.¹⁰ Surendrakīrti, pupil of Kāśikānūṭtama, wrote a commentary on the *Jambhikānūṭtama* in Sanskrit in 1776 A.D.¹¹

(v) ASTRONOMICAL WORKS: There is hardly any branch of literature that has not been treated by the Jains. Astronomical works were written by Jaina authors from time to time. Haribhadra was an astronomer who wrote the *Laṅkāśikā*.¹² Durgadeva, who flourished in the eleventh century at Kāman near Bharnapur, was an astronomer of note. He wrote the *Arakṣaka* in Prākṛit deviating to the description of different astronomical and astrological circumstances and conditions leading to the rise and fall in

1. SVR886, p. 707.

2. JSSL, p. 309.

3. JGG, p. 16.

4. JSAI, p. 135.

5. RB III, No. 2.

6. JGG, p. 50.

7. Ibid., p. 6.

8. *Paribhāṣa Jaina*

Vākyasūtrī, p. 07.

9. RB III, No. 2.

10. Catalogue of MSS. in Jaisalmer

Manchīra, p. 46.

11. PS, p. 8.

12. JSSL, p. 162.

prices of various commodities, articles of food, drink, animals and others.¹ In 1152 A.D., Hrakabala of the Khastanagachchha composed an important work named *Jyotishāra* in Prākṛit at Nagaur.² *Dhāshāpamāśāhikā* was written in 1628 A.D. by Samayācāra at Lepaknagar.³ Dharmarāja made a commentary on the *Dhāshāpamāśāra* in 1638 A.D. at Padmāvan.⁴ The famous Bhānuchandra prepared a treatise on the *Vasantarajalakṣaṇa* at Sirohi.⁵ Harshakīrti of Nāgauriya Tapāgachchha wrote the *Jyotishāraśūdhikā*.⁶ Meghavijaya was well-versed in the science of astronomy and wrote the works namely *Vasāpamāśāhikā*, *Rasakāśikā*, *Harṣaśāstra*, *Udyaṭīpikā*, *Pracharandak* and *Vīrāpamāśāhikā*.⁷ Yalavaratāgata is the author of *Grāhahīmanvartikā* and *Yālorājirājapaddhati*.⁸

The astronomical works were written also in Rājasthān such as the *Laghyāśāstrakāśikā*, *Jitakāraṇasāhikāśūdhikā*, *Vasāpamāśāhikāśūdhikā*, *Bhaṇmāpamāśāhikāśūdhikā*, *Chandrabhāṣinīmanvartikāśūdhikā*, *Madhvatīraṇamāhikāśūdhikā*, *Vīrāpamāśāhikāśūdhikā*, *Govatāśūdhikā*, *Pañchāṅganāṇḍīpī*, *Akṣhaṇḍīpī*, *Āṇḍīpī*, *Āṇḍīpī*, and *Vasāpamāśāhikāśūdhikā*.⁹

(vi) **WORKS ON MATHEMATICS:** Jains have written some works on Mathematics also. A mathematical work named *Uttamāśāstra* was written in Sanskrit by Samatikīrti, pupil of Jīvanabhadra.¹⁰ The *Arthasamāgrahāśāstra* of Paṇḍita Tadarāmā is a work of high merit in mathematics.¹¹ Paṇḍita Manāḍīla Śaṅkha was well-versed in this science. The *Līlāśāstrāśāstra* and *Govatāśāstra* written in Rājasthān language are credited to him.¹²

(vii) **WORKS ON MEDICINE:** Works on medicine were written by Jain authors from time to time. Paṇḍita Āśādhara wrote a commentary named *Āśādharaśāstra* on the famous work of Vāgbhaṭa but it is not available.¹³ Dapachanda, pupil of Deyāśāstra, wrote a work on medicine named *Laghyāśāstraśāstra* at Jaipur in 1735 A.D. It deals with treatment by fasting.¹⁴ The works written in Rājasthān language are *Madhvatīraṇa*

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| 1. Singhi Jaina series, XXI, (Int.). | 2. RB III, No. 2. | 3. Ibid. |
| 4. Ibid. | 5. RB III, No. 2. | 6. Ibid. |
| 7. JGG, p. 58. | 8. Ibid., p. 50. | 9. SVRSSG, p. 707. |
| 10. JGPS, p. 75 (Int.). | 11. <i>Āśādhara</i> VI, No. 8. | 12. RB III, No. 2. |
| 13. JSAI, p. 130. | 14. RB III, No. 2. | |

*tabhī, Nampūṭhalibṭabḥāḥya, Padṣipattinabḥā, Vāṇagṇanabḥā, Nāṭḥabḥā etc.*¹

(5) HISTORICAL AND POLITICAL WORKS

From time to time, Jaina scholars have written some works which throw some light on history. Hemachandra is the author of *Deyāḥvanakāva* and *Hamirānandacharita* which deal with the history of the Gūḥyakas of Anahilavāḍa.² The former describes the conquest of Siddhanta Jayasinha and the latter claims to be a biography of the King. Adhyasinha and Virrakalaka wrote a commentary on the *Deyāḥvanakāva* of Hemachandra.³ Naysachandrasuri is the author of *Hamirānandakāva* which describes the heroic feats of Hamirita in his fight against Alaughin Khelji. In 1440 A.D., Jinaharsa wrote the *Uttarpratihastipūṭhacharita*.⁴ Gajrajaya wrote a commentary on the famous historical poem named *Ujjayapūṭh* in 1631 A.D.⁵ The historical poem named *Dipjyānandakāva* was written by Meghavijaya.⁶ An incomplete work named *Rajamaharajavamsa* written in Sanskrit describes the important dynasties of India.⁷

A large number of *Tirthamukha* written by Jaina scholars are found and they actually form a branch of Jaina literature. These are the recorded accounts of saints and scholars who went from place to place. These are just like our so-called guide books. We find in them the names of the Tirthas, history of their origin and miracles associated with them. The *Satrahasthātaram* of Siddhanta,⁸ *Vishvavasthātara* of Jinaprabhasuri⁹ and the *Tirthamukha* written by Vinayaprabhasuri,¹⁰ Saubhāgyavijaya and Silavijaya are noteworthy. Some *Tirthamukha* and *dharmas* written on separate *loha* plates such as Jirāvālī, Nāgārī, Phalodhī, Alwar etc. are found. *Chandro-pūṭh* written by Jaina teachers are also noticed. This type of literature is especially important for the history of towns.

The *Prāśasta* written at the end of manuscripts by Jaina scholars and the inscriptions engraved on the pedestals of images are full of historical

1. SVRSEG, p. 707.

2. JSSI, pp. 307-08.

3. RB III, No. 2.

4. JSSI, p. 360.

5. RB III, No. 2.

6. Published in Singh-Jaina Series, Vol. 14.

7. IJSSBS, p. 255.

8. Chakravart's Oriental Series LXXVI, p. 156.

9. Published in Singh-Jaina Series, Vol. X.

10. *Jaina Saṅga Prabhā*, XVII, p. 19.

information. For the reconstruction of medieval history of India, they are valuable sources. The *Pattavali* of the various Satijhas and Gachahas are found written in Sanskrit, Prakrit and Rājasthān languages. They are very useful for the preparation of religious history.

The historical works written in Rājasthānī language are numerous. Muhapota *Naimatīlī*¹ is a work of the Jaina Divyān Muhapota Naimatī of the Jodhpur state. It is very useful for the medieval history of Rajasthan and of neighbouring provinces. His Gazetteer of the Jodhpur State deals with the history of the kings of this state. Besides, it contains the history of each district and village of Jodhpur state. The poet Dhansapatavilaya wrote the *Khamūvarīnā* which describes the history of Mahārāṣṭra of Udaipur.² Hemarajna and Lalulchodaga composed the *Gachchakala* and the *Padmāvatīlī* hymn respectively.³ The *Rāṣṭraka Amaratīkha* *lī* *lī* was written by his contemporary Jaina Yati.⁴ *Rāṣṭraka* *lī* *Khyāta* and their *lī* *lī* written by Jaina Yatis are also available.⁵ The *Karmachandrikā* *lī* *lī* throws some light on the history of Bikaner.⁶ The *Vaṇṇīnālī* written in 1834 A.D. gives us a list of the Kachchhāvāha chiefs of Jaipur ruling from 966 A.D. to 1834 A.D.⁷ Col. Tod took the help of the Jaina Yati Gyānachanda in writing the history of Rajasthan.

The works on Politics were also written by Jaina writers. In 1601 A.D., at the persuasion of Rāyasilaha, the ruling chief of Bikaner, Yati Udayarāja composed *Rājputra* *lī* *lī*.⁸ The works on Politics found written in Rājasthānī language are *Chandraprāśādhī* and *Nīlīprāśādhī*.⁹

From the above survey, it is clear that there is a vast Jaina literature in Rajasthan. Most of it is still lying undiscovered in Jaina Śāstrī Bhandhān. Scholars have not so far recognized its value. The Jains being a commercial class are not attentive to it. Their scribes are indifferent to secular subjects and the non-Jains have no access to it. If it is critically examined and studied, it will be of great service to the Indian literature.

1. It has been edited by Ram Nāgaram Dugal and published by Kashi Nāgarī-prachārīṇī Sabhā in V. 8. 1982.

2. SVRSGS, p. 700.

3. Ibid.

4. Ibid., p. 708.

5. Ibid.

6. Ibid.

7. RJSRGS, p. 26.

8. *Rawli Jaina Sāhitya lī* *Sāhitya* *lī* *lī*, p. 132.

9. SVRSGS, p. 707.

CHAPTER VI

JAINA SĀSTRABHĀNDARAS

In the beginning, the Jains followed the Brakmanic traditions of handing down knowledge from generation to generation by memory. When literature increased in volume, this was found impossible; and, therefore, the *Āśva* style of helping the memory was devised and naturally, it became popular. Even this did not help for long as the literature became still more voluminous. Besides, the multiplicity of books caused complications and uncertainties as to the fundamentals of religion and the books embodying. The difficulties were further enhanced by the death of those who were considered authorities and repositories of ancient true lore. To separate the chaff from the grain, a conference was convened at Valabhi in the fifth century A.D. under Devardhigant to which a number of leading authorities were invited and the Jain canon was determined.

ORIGIN OF THE JAINA BOOKS IN FOURTH CENTURY. The credit for the foundation of these Sāstrabhāndaras and the preservation of the manuscripts in them goes however to the Jain monks who realised their great educational value. These monks were persons of great eminence and as such wielded great influence on the masses. They made indefatigable efforts in explaining to the Jain intelligentsia the importance of the religious texts and the works of the great masters. It is said that Jambhadrāsami spent the best part of his life in establishing the store-houses of knowledge for the posterity. In early days, only the palm-leaves were used for writing purposes; but soon, paper became a cheap and enough durable material for writing. The preparation of various copies of the manuscripts was done by the scribes working under Jambhadrāsami in Rajasthan. It was through the efforts of such scribes that a part of the great treasure-house of the medieval learning was saved to acquaint us with the glories of the people of Rajasthan in the field of art and literature.

During this period, the *Chaturvāsis* were firmly established in Rajasthan. The *Bhagīraks* and *Sopuīyas* began to live in temples. It was natural for them to store the religious manuscripts for the preservation and

study. This tendency, by and large, gave rise to the establishment of small Grāntabhandāras at different places. Regular arrangements were made for copying the manuscripts. Several scholars possessing good handwriting were employed for this purpose. Besides, other Jaina saints, who stayed at one particular place during the rainy season contributed to some extent to the establishment of these libraries, because they also required manuscripts for their study and learning.

TEMPLES AS THE SEATS OF LEARNING: In early times, Jain temples were the centres of learning and were also used for imparting education to the students. It, therefore, became necessary to collect books. In these Śāstrabhandāras, not only Jaina books relating to the various faiths but also those of secular character were kept for study and reference. This indicates that the Jains in the middle ages were not narrow minded but understood the importance of an all-comprehensive library.

THE PATRONAGE OF KINGS AND MINISTERS: The great Jaina kings and their ministers partly for the expiation of their sins as also for the study of their religious literature and partly for their own spiritual welfare and that of their departed kith and kin and their subjects, encouraged writing of new books. They also purchased old manuscripts for their presentation to revered teachers. Mahārāja Jyasingha Siddhacharya, who was a great patron of learning, established a royal library by getting a large number of manuscripts on different subjects. He got 1,25,000 copies of *Ādīśaśanmayādhyaṇī* prepared for presentation to scholars and *grāntabhandāras* of various provinces.¹ Kumbhapaḍa established twenty one Śāstrabhandāras in every one of which he placed the copy of the *Kaṭhaśāstra* in golden ink.² Among the great ministers of the states, who founded Śāstrabhandāras may be mentioned the names of Vastupāla and Pethaśāśha, Manjuna and others. Vastupāla and Tejapāla became interested in founding them on the advice of their teachers Vijayasamantī and Udayaprabhasan.³ Pethaśāśha, the minister of Māndavyagadha, established Śāstrabhandāras in seven cities including Abu.⁴ Even several Jaina statesmen of the former states of Rajasthan are known to have given liberal grants to the Grāntabhandāras in medieval times.

1. *Prabhavakchavīra* (See Hemachandraprabandha)

2. *Kumbhapaḍaprabandha*, pp.96-97.

3. *Upadeśataisāṅgī*, p. 142.

4. *Bhāratīya Jaina Śāstraṇaḥ-Sanskṛitī Am. Lokanakaḷā*, p. 92.

CONTRIBUTION OF MERCHANTS AND BANKERS: Actuated by the desire of service to their religion, merchants and bankers got prepared numerous copies of important manuscripts. It is due to their efforts that a large number of manuscripts are found in the Jaina Śāstrabhāṇḍāras of Rajasthan. It is mentioned in the *Vimuktisūtra* that in 1394 A.D., Saṅgāma Soul, a Jaina house-holder, spent lacs of gold *ratnas* in preparation of the *Kaṭhamāra* and *Kālikāśāstrasūtra* for the benefit of Jaina monks.¹ At the instruction of Jinabhadrasūri of Khamesargachetiba, Dharaṇḍīśāha got many copies of palm-leaf manuscripts written for presentation to the Śāstrabhāṇḍāra of Jaisahner.²

WHY ŚĀSTRABHĀṆḌĀRAS IN RAJASTHAN HAVE SURVIVED: A large number of manuscripts are found in Rajasthan because this province remained comparatively safer and more secure than other provinces. The Rājput kings offered mild resistance to the Muslim invaders. Although they accepted the overlordship of the Muslim emperors, they were free in carrying on the administration of their states. Besides, they were great patrons of learning and art. It is for this reason that both art and literature flourished in their reign, and their excellent specimens are preserved in the Grantha-bhāṇḍāras even to the present day.

It is difficult to enumerate the Śāstrabhāṇḍāras of Rajasthan because a small Grantha-bhāṇḍāra is attached to every temple or Upāsāṭh. The most important of these are the Bhāṇḍāras of Jaisahner, famous for the collections of palm-leaf manuscripts from the eleventh to the fifteenth century A.D. These Bhāṇḍāras have paper manuscripts dating from the fourteenth to the eighteenth century A.D. Not only manuscripts but they contain *patals*. These *patals* were the note books of the literary persons who used to note down the important passages and small interesting works. It is sometimes noticed that manuscripts were not prepared at the place of Bhāṇḍāra but were presented to it from distant corners of the country.

The small Bhāṇḍāras contain books mostly on religious topics such as *Sūtikānta*, *Papā*, *Pratichā* and *Vishāma*. The big Bhāṇḍāras are concerned not only with religious books but also manuscripts on secular subjects such as

1. *Jainachitratkalpadrūpa*, p. 57.

2. *Outline of Hist. in Jaisahner Bhāṇḍāras*, pp. 4, 15, 22, 24, 31, 41 and 42.

astronomy, medicine, grammar and Kāvya. Important works of non-Jaina authors such as Kālidāsa, Bhāṣavi, Māgha, Tulasīdāsa, Bihārī and Keśava are available in these collections.

These Jaina Bhāṣyās are of great importance from literary point of view. Works of different periods written in various languages such as Sanskrit, Pīlīnī, Apabhraṃśa, Rāṣṭrī and Hindi are preserved in them. As works written in Apabhraṃśa language are especially found in abundance in these Bhāṣyās, their study is valuable for the Apabhraṃśa literature. Rare manuscripts not only of Jains but sometimes of non-Jains are also available in them. Sometimes more than one copies of the manuscript written at different times are noticed in some or other Bhāṣyās. These copies are useful for the purpose of editing them in modern times. Most of these libraries have not been classified and catalogued. If this work is done, it will illumine the dark and unexplored corners of ancient and modern Indian languages and literature.

JAINA GRANTHABHĀṢYĀS OF JAISALMER

The Jaina Granthabhāṣyās¹ of Jaisalmer have been famous throughout India for valuable collections. In 1874 A.D., Dr. BÜHLER and JACOB visited this place and brought them to light before the scholars. In 1904 A.D., Prof. S. R. BHATTACHARJEE gave a more detailed account and list of the manuscripts both in the city and within the fort. Mr. C. D. DALAL visited the place in 1913 A.D. with the purpose of cataloguing the manuscripts of the Bhāṣyās but unfortunately, he died before he could publish his work. Pt. L. B. GARDH published the posthumous work. This work is of great importance, but it was felt that the manuscripts housed therein had not been thoroughly examined. Afterwards, Muni JIRAVIJAYA, Muni PUNYAVIJAYA and AGARACHANDRA NARAYAN went to Jaisalmer where they reexamined the Sāstrabhāṣyās.

(1) BHULAL JĀNATHANPĀRA: This Bhāṣyā is situated in the basement of the temple of Samādhasūtiha. As it was founded by Jinalhadrasuri in 1445 A.D. it is known also as Jinalhadrasurībhāṣyās. He got a large number of copies written. He also brought palm-leaf manuscripts

1. See Catalogue of MSS in Jaisalmer Bhāṣyās.

from other places for preservation thinking Jaisalmer to be safe and secure from the Muslim invasions. There are 304 manuscripts written on palm-leaves. The earliest manuscript written on palm-leaves is the *Upham-jetihimani* by Dronidhārya in 1060 A.D. This manuscript was copied by Pāhila. The total number of paper manuscripts is 2704. The works written by non-Jaina authors are also in good number. Some of the important manuscripts preserved in this Granthalakṣaṇa are as follows: (1) *Caṇḍīpranāthasamacharita* by Yāśodevasuri in 1160 A.D., (2) *Paṇḍitacharita* copied in 1141 A.D., (3) *Haripadāśīrṇa* of Paramānandadevi dated 1253 A.D., (4) *Tantrānandāvalī* by Saṅghadhāravāchaka, (5) *Śāntamūrticharitam* by Devakānḍasuri, (6) *Naiṣadha-śāhā* by Vidyābhara, (7) *Chāndīśāstram* by Javakīrṇasuri copied in 1133 A.D., (8) *Madanāśāstram* by Vidyābhara copied in 1117 A.D.

(2) **PAṢCHĀYATĪBHAGPĀRA OF THE KULAKATARA GACHHRA:** It is housed in the great Upāsālā. There are about fourteen copies of palm-leaf manuscripts and one thousand copies of paper manuscripts. Among the copies of paper manuscripts, the illustrated copy of the *Kāpāśīrṇaśāstram* of 1503 A.D. is noteworthy. In 1761 A.D., Angiradhama and his pupil *Kāśīnāthacharya* placed several copies. It also contains two painted wooden covers of about the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries A.D. Some rare manuscripts are also preserved such as (1) *Nandīpūjapāṭha* copied in 1219 A.D., *Upham-jetihimani* with the commentary by Jānasūgandevī copied in 1429 A.D. etc.

(3) **TARĀGACHHIBHAGPĀRA:** There are both palm-leaf and paper manuscripts in this Bhandāra. The number of palm-leaf manuscripts is eight only. Some of the important manuscripts preserved in this Bhandāra are as follows: (1) *Haribhūmicharita* by Javāhaka copied in 1358 A.D., (2) *Śāntamūrticharita* by Maladhārī Devapālha and *Caṇḍīśāstram* by Subhadda copied in 1354 A.D.

(4) **LOKĀ GACHHIBHAGPĀRA:** There are about five hundred paper manuscripts and eleven palm-leaf manuscripts. The manuscript of *Haribhūmicharita* composed by Vidyāśāntadāgari in 1277 A.D. at Jaisalmer is an important manuscript. This Bhandāra is also famous by the name of Dūrgarāśī Bhandāra.

(5) **THĀNARĪŚĀHABHAGPĀRA:** It was founded in the seventeenth century by Bhanasālī Thākarasāha who was himself a great scholar. He got

a large number of copies prepared between 1612 A.D. and 1627 A.D. There are about one thousand manuscripts in this Bhāṅḍār. Only four are on palm-leaves and the rest on paper.

JAINA ŚĀSTRABHĀṢYĀS OF BIKANER

There are about fifty thousand manuscripts in the Śāstrabhaṅḍāras of Bikaner.¹ They contain several copies which are not available at any other place. They have been written in different languages such as Sanskrit, Prākṛit, Hindi, Apabhraṃśa, Gujarātī, Rājasthānī, Urdū, Persian, Marāṭhī, Bengālī etc. Besides, numerous artistic pieces such as old pictures and Vignette-paints are preserved there.

(1) *Bhadrakāyaśāstrabhaṅḍāra*: It has been placed in the Baḍī Upasāṅg in the Rājgīrī-mūḍhaka. It was established by the special efforts of Yādū Himantī in 1921 A.D. There are nine collections possessed by nine individuals. The total number of manuscripts in it is about 10,000. (a) *Mahimā-lakṣmībhaṅḍāra*: It is the collection of Mahimālakṣmī, grand pupil of Kṣemā-lakṣmī. It contains rare and important copies of manuscripts. About three thousand manuscripts are preserved in eighty nine bundles. (b) *Dharmapāra-bhaṅḍāra*: Himantī, the founder of *Bhadrakāyaśāstrabhaṅḍāra*, named it after his guru. About three thousand manuscripts are preserved in sixty eight bundles. (c) *Pañcāraṇyāśāstrabhaṅḍāra*: There are about one thousand manuscripts in forty three bundles. (d) *Abhayaśāstrabhaṅḍāra*: The twenty three bundles of it contain about five hundred manuscripts. (e) *Pañcārāṣṭrīśāstrabhaṅḍāra*: About three hundred manuscripts are preserved in twenty seven bundles. (f) *Abhayaśāstrabhaṅḍāra*: There are about five hundred manuscripts. (g) *Śānta-lakṣmībhaṅḍāra*: There are about five hundred manuscripts in fourteen bundles. (h) *Kāma-lakṣmībhaṅḍāra*: It contains about three hundred manuscripts in nine bundles. (i) *Mahā-lakṣmībhaṅḍāra*: It contains about one hundred manuscripts in eight bundles.

(2) *Saṁvatsarāśāstrabhaṅḍāra*: It is placed in Baḍī Upasāṅg of Bhaṅḍāra-tara-gaṇaśākhā. It contains two collections. In the collection of Saṁvatsara about 2500 manuscripts in 84 bundles are preserved. Besides, it possesses about 2000 printed books. The other collection is of

1. *Bikanerī Jaina-Lekha Saṁgraha*, pp. 60-73.

Charutshuja Yati in which eight hundred manuscripts in fourteen bundles are preserved.

(3) **SAT JAINA LABHANI MOHANA JĀKHARNAṢṬĀRA:** It is situated in the Rāṅglikā Cāuka. It was founded by Mohanmīla, the teacher of Upādhyaya Jayachanda, in 1894 A.D. It contains about three thousand copies in 121 bundles.

(4) **KṢHANĀKALYĀNSHNAṢṬĀRA:** This Bhagīra is housed in the Upādhyaya of Suganājī. It contains about seven hundred manuscripts. Among them, the Gurvāvalī of the Kharataragachchha is of considerable importance as it is rarely found at other places.

(5) **UPĀKRAYABHANAṢṬĀRA:** It is situated in Boharā ki Serī near Rāṅgadi. There are about eight hundred manuscripts in twenty three bundles.

(6) **CHHATIBHĀI ULĀKRAYABHANAṢṬĀRA:** It is placed in the Upādhyaya of Chhatibhāi, situated in Nāthni ki Guvāḍa. About three hundred manuscripts are available here.

(7) **PANŚIRĀI UPĀKRAYABHANAṢṬĀRA:** This Upādhyaya is situated at the back of Chhatibhāi Upādhyaya. About three hundred manuscripts are preserved there.

(8) **COLLECTIONS OF MAHOPĀDHIVĀYA RĀMAJĀLA:** There are about five hundred manuscripts.

(9) **BNĀRATSEKONĀRYASĀKHĀ BHAGĪRĀ:** About two thousand manuscripts are available in it.

(10) **HEMACHANDRASĒRI PUSTAKĀLAYA:** It is placed in the Upādhyaya of Piyachandragachchha situated in the Bāndhyasāi Guvāḍa. About twelve hundred manuscripts are preserved here.

(11) **KUŚĀLACHANDRASĒRI PUSTAKĀLAYA:** It is situated in the Guvāḍa of Rāmpuriyā. There are about four hundred fifty manuscripts. It has also a good collection of printed books.

(12) **COLLECTIONS OF YATI MONAVALĀLA:** It is placed in the Upādhyaya of Lokhā-gachchha situated in the Guvāḍa of Surigān.

(13) **COLLECTIONS OF YATI LACHCHHIRĀMA:** There are some important manuscripts in the possession of Yati Lachchhirāma.

(14) **BHANḌĀRA IN THE UPĀŚRĀVA OF KOCHHARAS:** It is situated at the Guvāḍa of the Kochharas. There are thirty bundles containing about eight hundred manuscripts.

(15) **COLLECTION OF YATI JAYAKAṢAṢAṢA:** There are about two hundred fifty manuscripts in it.

All the above Bhāṇḍāras are placed in the Upāśrāvās. Besides, there are Śāstrabhanḍāras in possession of the individual Śrāvaks.

(16) **ABHAYA JAINA GRANTHĀLAYA:** It was established by Śaṅkacandana Nāṭhā in memory of his second son Abhayarāja. There are about fifteen thousand manuscripts and five hundred *guthaks*. Besides, letters of Ācharyas, Yatis and kings, special documents, the *paṇḍitāṅga* written from 1644 A.D. upto the present day and the *Uśāhātālā* of the Gaṇḍālas are found. It is also attached to Nīlhaṛḍ Kālā Bhavara, in which there are old pictures, illustrated Vihārapīṭhas, painted clothes and old coins.

(17) **SETHIYĀ LIBRARY:** About one thousand five hundred manuscripts and ten thousand printed manuscripts are available here.

(18) **GOVINDA PUSTAKĀLAYA:** It is situated in Nīlhaṛḍ Kālā Guvāḍa and was founded by Govinda-rāma Bhaṅgachandā Bhavasthī. About 1700 manuscripts and 1200 printed books are found in this Bhāṇḍāra.

(19) **COLLECTIONS OF MOGHANANDA KĪJĀNČHĪ:** It was established by Moḡhananda Kījānčhī, son of Premakumār Kījānčhī. The number of manuscripts in it is about 6000.

(20) **COLLECTION OF MANAMALA KOTHĀNĪ:** About 100 manuscripts and 2000 printed books are there.

Besides, there are the collections of Maṇḍala Chanda Mālu, Bhavasthīlā Bhaṅgasthī, Maṇḍalachandā Jhābka and Gopāthasāiḍa Vaidya. About 1400 Jain manuscripts are also preserved even in the well-known Anupā Sanskrit library. All the above Jain Śāstrabhanḍāras are in the city proper but there are a number of Jain Śāstrabhanḍāras even in the neighbouring towns of Bikaner.

(21) **ŚĀSTRABHANḌĀRĀ OF GAṆḌĀLĀHARA:** Gaṇḍālahara is situated at a distance of two miles from Bikaner. About 500 manuscripts are preserved in this Bhāṇḍāra which is under the control of the Jain Svayāmbhavi Terāpanthi Sabhā.

(22) **TWO LIBRARIES OF CHITREY:** There are two libraries at this place. The collection placed in the Bagh Upland of Yari Rāhataraga contains about 200 manuscripts. The other library known as Sainī Library is one of the big libraries of the State. The number of manuscripts in it is about 2500. Palm-leaf manuscripts and illustrated copies of several manuscripts are preserved.

(23) **OSAYĀLA LIBRARY OF RAJAGADHAR:** There are 30 bundles containing about 100 manuscripts in the Osayāla Library.

(24) **SARADĀRA-SARASA LIBRARY:** There is a good collection in the building of Virādichandra Gadimiyā. About 75 bundles containing numerous manuscripts are in possession of the Tēṣṭpanthi Sakhā. Dadiichandra Sakhī of this place also possesses several hundred manuscripts.

Besides, the small Jain libraries are found at Bhandāra, Desapada, Kāla, Nodara, Surmagadhā, Hāmudnagarā, Rājādāra, Rammagadhā, Beldāra, Chitpura, Sujnagarā and Rīpi.

RARE MANUSCRIPTS OF THE BHANDĀRAS

There are several rare manuscripts found in the above Bhandāras. The *Prabodhāvalī* of Phāspadichārya and the *Chandrabhāgavratīgāyā* of Mūlaka are on palm-leaf. *Bhāvanābhāratī* of Siddhichandra, *Kāśyapa-gadadhā-pāṇḍitī* of Jinasīlāpādhyāya, *Vāśīṣṭhachārīta*, different *Vaṭṭāntī* of Kharana-gadadhā, *Lokā-gadadhā*, *Bāl-gadadhā* etc. of the different authors. *Jyotiṣīta*, *Rasadhā*, *Vāśīṣṭhachārīta*, *Prabodhāvalī*, *Jyotiṣīraśī*, *Prabodhāvalī*, *Jyotiṣīraśī*, *Jyotiṣīraśī*, *Jyotiṣīraśī* and *Jyotiṣīraśī* are works of historical importance.

There are certain rare Sanskrit Jain Kāvya namely the *Sāmanvāda-lakṣṇa* by the pupil of Nandirāma, *Chandrabhāgavratī* by Vimalakīrti, *Harivaṃśa* by Munīnāga, *Vāśīṣṭhachārīta* by Sīvalābha, *Vāśīṣṭhachārīta* by the pupil of Indramandira, *Rasadhā* by Muni Soma, *Pāyāṇī* by Sumatīrāja, *Prabodhāvalī* by Sarachandragani, *Antipratīkṣā* by Devānandara, *Devānandara* by Pratiśāhama, *Prabodhāvalī* by Rājāvalābha and *Prabodhāvalī* by Sāmānandara. The Sanskrit commentaries both on the Jain and non-Jain works found in these Bhandāras

are not available at other places. The *Uttarapurnima* by Harshanandana, *Lakṣmīnarsai* by Ajitdevasūri, *Nandīnarsai* by Jyotiṣaṅka, *Vijayachandīnarsai* by Saṃjānandana and *Menāḍīnarsai* are noteworthy among them.

JAINA BHANDĀRAS OF JAIPUR

A large number of Jain Bhandāras¹ with old manuscripts are found attached to Jain temples in Jaipur city. In later medieval times, several Jain scholars such as Īśānārāma, Guṇānārāma and Jyotiṣaṅka Cāḍhara, dedicated themselves to the cause of learning and contributed to the growth of Bhandāras. Besides, several Jains acted as Divans of the state. Some of them constructed Jain temples and equipped them with Śāstrabhandāras.

(1) **ĀMERA ŚĀSTRABHANDĀRA:** Āmera Śāstrabhandāra² was situated previously at Amber city, the old capital of the former Jaipur state but now it has been shifted to Mahāvīrabhavan at Jaipur. This Śāstrabhandāra was known in the eighteenth century A.D. by the name of Bhīṣṅka Devendrakīrti Śāstrabhandāra. Bhīṣṅka Devendrakīrti must have greatly patronized it. There are 2704 manuscripts and 370 *grantha*. The earliest manuscript in this Śāstrabhandāra is the *Uttarapurnima* written by Mahāhavi Puṣhpadaṇḍa in Apabhraṃśa language. This manuscript was copied in 1334 A.D. at Delhi during the reign of Mahammad Tughlaq. This Bhandāra is especially valuable for the study of Apabhraṃśa literature. There are several rare manuscripts like *Śaṭśākhībhāṣya* of Nayanānā, *Purāṇapūjya* of Padma-kīrti and a Sanskrit commentary on *Kāśikāśāstra* by Prakāśavatsa.

(2) **ŚĀSTRABHANDĀRA OF BAIṢĀNANDURA:** This Śāstrabhandāra³ is situated in the Digambara Jaina Terāpanthi Mūḍra at Chirwaḷan Lā Rāṭa. It is one of the biggest Śāstrabhandāras of Jaipur city having 2612 manuscripts and 324 *grantha*. The *Pāśāṅgadhya*, a famous work of Āchārya Kuṇḍakanda written in Prākṛit, is the earliest manuscript. It was copied in 1472 A.D. at Delhi. An illuminated copy of *Āśṭāṅga* dated 1540 A.D. is the noteworthy manuscript of this Bhandāra. It has 138 coloured pictures fully based on the text. Some rare manuscripts have been also discovered in this Bhandāra.

1. The Jain Bhandāras of Jaipur division have been described with the help of the *Maṇḍi of Shri Rājwade Sanshodhan Mandal, KASHI*, 1934.

2. *Āmera Śāstrabhandāra Jaipur Lī Grantha Sāchi*.

3. *RJSBS*, II (Int.)

There are two copies of Sanskrit commentaries on the *Jainasūtrācārya* and *Prasastisūtra* respectively found in this Bhandāra. The *Harimācārya* of Dhavala, an author of the tenth century A.D. is available. There is a rich collection of Hindi works also. The *Chāṭāṭī*, a Hindi work composed in 1314 A.D. by Kavi Dellia, has been discovered.

(3) **GRANTHAḢYĀRĀ OF PĀNDVĀ LĪNABARĀJĀJĪ:** This Granthaḥyārā¹ was established by Pāndyā Līnabarājā in the temple called after him. There are 807 manuscripts and 221 *gṛantha* in this collection. The earliest manuscript of this Bhandāra is the *Prasastisūtrācārya* written in 1350 A.D. There is an illustrated copy of the *Yamkharacharya* of Bahalakrai. Manuscripts concerned with Jyotiṣa, Āyurveda and *śāstraśāstra* are also preserved.

(4) **SĀSTRABHĀRĀRĀ OF DULICHANDA:** The Granthaḥyārā was established in 1814 A.D. by Śrī Dulichanda who was well versed in Hindi and Sanskrit. He translated about 13 works in Hindi and also wrote a description about his travel called *Jainasūtrācārya*. There are about 850 manuscripts written in Sanskrit and Hindi in this Bhandāra. The subjects dealt within the manuscripts are mainly religious, *panthā*, *hataḥ*, *charitra* etc.

(5) **SĀSTRABHĀRĀRĀ OF JAINA TEMPLE BALUCHANDA:** This Sāstrabhaṛārā² is situated in the Jain temple of Baluchanda. It was founded in 1718 A.D. on the completion of the temple by Baluchanda, Divān of Jaipur mare. There are 1274 manuscripts including *gṛantha*. The earliest manuscript available in the Granthaḥyārā is commentary on *Prasastisūtrācārya* which is a rare work written in 1424 A.D. Besides, there are other manuscripts of importance. Some of them are still unpublished and others are rare ones. The *Harimācārya*, an Apabhraṃśa work of Mahādev Svayambhā, is a rare manuscript in this collection. The *Prasastisūtrācārya*, a Hindi work of Sallān, composed in 1314 A.D. is also available in this Bhandāra. *Gṛantha* of this Bhandāra possess some rare works of Hindi scholars. About twenty works of Vijaykṛṣṇ Bāpā, a scholar of the eighteenth century A.D., have been traced out in the Bhandāra.

(6) **GRANTHAḢYĀRĀ OF TIRUJYA JAINA TEMPLE:** This temple is situated in the Ghawāḥon kī Bāḥī. There are 648 manuscripts

1. RJSBCS, II (Int.).

2. Ibid., III (Int.).

and 125 *paṭhā*. The earliest manuscript available in this Bhāṇḍāra is a commentary of *Umapadāyogīya* by Brahmadatta. It was written in 1494 A.D. during the reign of Firuzshah at Delhi. There is one manuscript namely *Paṭisūtrāṇi* in which coloured paintings of *mantras* have been given.

(7) GRANTHABHAYĀRĀ OF JAINA TEMPLE, PATODI: The temple in which this Bhāṇḍāra exists is situated in Chankadi Modikhāda of the city. The total number of manuscripts in the Bhāṇḍāra is 2257 and the *paṭhā* are 526 in number. The *Blackīmanvantara* and the *Tattvārthasūtra* are found on palm-leaves. Some maps of Jambudvīpa, Adhīdvīpa and of some Yantras are found on cloth. The earliest manuscript available in the Bhāṇḍāra is *Jambudvīparūpa* of Pashpadanta, an Apabhraṃśīa writer of the tenth century A.D. This manuscript was copied in 1510 A.D. Among small works of Hindi, Jīnadattashāpīrī of Kavi Ratha composed in 1297 A.D. is one of the earliest manuscripts.

(8) GRANTHABHAYĀRĀ SARASVATĪ BHĀṆḌĀRĀ: This Bhāṇḍāra is found in the Jain temple of Dīvēna Amarchandāji who was a prominent Dīvēna of the former Jaipur state in the nineteenth century A.D. This temple is situated in the Lālaji Sāgī Kā Rōṣī, Chankadi Modi Khāna. There are 342 manuscripts out of which about 550 are incomplete. This is a rich collection of Sanskrit manuscripts. The *Kārttikyaṇuprekshā* dated 1561 A.D. is the earliest written manuscript. Most of the manuscripts belong to the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

(9) ŚĀSTRABHAYĀRĀ OF JOLAHRA TEMPLE: A Śāstrabhāṇḍāra attached to the temple of Jolakra in Khejarāḥ Kā Rōṣī Chāndapada bazar contains about 340 manuscripts including the *paṭhā*. Sanskrit manuscripts are more in number than those of Hindi. Generally, manuscripts range between seventeenth and nineteenth centuries. The important manuscripts are as follows:—(1) *Valbhīmanvantara* of Raghurāja in Hindi, (2) *Apārādhīya* of Śāntakāśīa composed in 1607 A.D. (3) *Bhīṣmāraṇa* of Bīṣṇīkha written in 1716 A.D. and *Raghuvaṃśa* by Kālidāsa copied in 1625 A.D. Besides, there is a copy of *Longśāstrāṇīya* of the eighteenth century A.D.

(10) PARŚVANĀTHA DULAMPARA JAINA SARASVATĪ BHAYĀRĀ: It contains 550 manuscripts including the *paṭhā*. The manuscripts written in Sanskrit language are numerous. The *Naladāśakṛta* of Māṇīyāsari copied

in 1388 A.D. is the oldest manuscript in this Bhāṇḍārā. A copy of the *Prakṛatīkṛatīka* of Āśādhara was written on cloth in 1409 A.D. This is the earliest manuscript so far found on cloth in the Śāstrabhaṇḍārā of Jaipur city. The *Yasodharacharitra* is an illustrated manuscript copied in 1743 A.D. It contains thirty illustrations based on a story of the work. The *Ācār-nīlākapāṇi* is a rare Apārādhāna work written by Vīṇayasiṃha in 1428 A.D. It deals with the life of Ajitanātha.

(11) **SASTHANĀNDYĀNA OR LINGA TĒGĒRĪ:** There are 618 manuscripts and 102 *gṛanth* in the Śāstrabhaṇḍārā of Gadhā temple. The earliest manuscript is *Dehātāhāṭhaka* written by Śrīnāṭhgar in Sanskrit. This manuscript was copied in 1439 A.D. for presentation to Maṇḍalācārya Dharmakīrti. Some of the important manuscripts are as follows—(1) *Ācār-nīlākapāṇi* by Azarmanāṇi composed in 1617 A.D. in Sanskrit, (2) *Dehātāhāṭhaka* composed by Dāṇigara in 1572 A.D. in Hindi, (3) *Prakṛatīkṛatīka* composed by Harschand in Hindi in 1773 A.D. (4) *Saṅkṣepaṇṭika* of Saṅkṣar-karī composed in 1631 A.D. and (4) A Bṛīhāṭhaka commentary written by some poet in 1723 A.D. at Agra on *BihārTantavī*.

(12) **SYNCHIMARA JAIKA GRANTHABHĀṆḌĀRĀ, JAIPUR:** There is a big Bhāṇḍārā having three thousand five hundred manuscripts placed in the Jaina Upāsālā situated in Kauligaron kī Bhāṇḍoṇī kī Rāṇā. The earliest manuscript in this Bhāṇḍārā is the *Ācār-nīlākapāṇi* copied in 1328 A.D. Some of the old manuscripts are (1) *Ācār-nīlākapāṇi* copied in 1352 A.D. and (2) *Parthivāthacharitra* copied in 1447 A.D.

(13) **GRANTHABHĀṆḌĀRĀ OF NAYĀKASITRĪ:** The Granthabhaṇḍārā has been placed in the Jaina temple of Banḍhīyān in the Moṇḍīnā Bhoṁṇī kī Rāṇā. There are 136 manuscripts. The earliest manuscript in the Granthabhaṇḍārā is the *Chandraprabhācharitra* copied in 1407 A.D. It contains also some important manuscripts namely *Bhīṣmapāṇḍitāna*, *Bhīṣmaśatpāṭh*, *Narāyāṇaṇḍa* and *Ācār-nīlākapāṇī*. They are written in golden ink and their borders are artistically designed and embroidered. These manuscripts are remarkable for border decorations representing various kinds of floral designs and geometrical patterns. Beautiful illustrations of creepers have been given.

(14) **GRANTHABHĀṆḌĀRĀ OF CHANDELARIYOR KĀ MANDIRĀ:** There are only 128 manuscripts in the Śāstrabhaṇḍārā of this temple situated in the

Chhājñāḥ, Sāha ki Gali Chaulādi Mālī Khānā. These manuscripts are written in Hindi and Sanskrit languages.

(11) SĀSTRABHAGĀRĀ OF KĀLĀCHHĀBARĪ JAINA TEMPLE: There are 410 manuscripts in the Sāstrabhagāra of Kālāchhābarī Jaina temple. These manuscripts deal with the subjects like religion, *Purāṇa*, *Kāvya*, *Poet* and *astro*. The *gṛantha*, which are 106 in number, contain a good collection of Hindi works written by Jain and non-Jain authors.

(12) SĀSTRABHAGĀRĀ OF MECHHARAJARĪ TEMPLE: It is a small collection of 149 manuscripts. It is concerned with the subjects like *Poet*, *Purāṇa*, *astro* etc.

(13) SARASVATĪ BHAVANA OF JAINA TEMPLE YASODĀNANDARĪ: This Bhagāra was established by Yati Yasodānandasārī in about 1791 A.D. The total number of manuscripts and *gṛantha* is 114 and 35 respectively. Most of these manuscripts are related to *Poet*, *Nature* and *Purāṇa*. The *bhagavats* of the emperors of Delhi and Hindi songs written in praise of Bhagvānka Dharmadhārī are worth mentioning.

Besides, there are some collections in the possession of Sūparya Dharmendrasūri, Yati of Pīṭhachandrarī Gachchhīna, Lucknow Śaikh and Yati Syāmalālā.

SĀSTRABHAGĀRĀ, SRĀM: In the Jaina temple called Vellānāsūri of Bīṣanpūḥā at Sīkar, there is a good collection of manuscripts. The total number of manuscripts is 142, written in different languages.

JAINA SĀSTRABHAGĀRĀS DAUSĀ: There are two Jaina temples possessing separate Bhagāra. The Sāstrabhagāra of Bīṣanpūḥā Mandira contains only 177 manuscripts including the *gṛantha*. Most of the manuscripts are written in Hindi. The *Vihārāśākhāḍiprasaṅga* is a fine work of the seventeenth century A.D. with Hindi commentary by the poet Śrīnāga. The work runs both in Sanskrit and Hindi. Another Sāstrabhagāra contains only 190 manuscripts. The manuscript of *Chetvādīśākhāḍiprasaṅga* is a rare one, written by Akhayanā in Hindi prose.

SĀSTRABHAGĀRĀ OF MAJANARĀRĀ: There are about four hundred manuscripts written in Sanskrit, Prākṛit, Apabhraṃśa and Hindi. The earliest manuscript is the *Prasādhānāḍiprasaṅga* of Karṇāḍakṛṇḍa copied in the fifteenth century A.D. There are three copies of *śaṅkarachārī* of Puṣpadama

fully illustrated. Some rare and important manuscripts are also found in this Bhandlā. The *Buddhimagga* of Jinavāra is found written in Hindi. The *Yaticharya* of Muniharakapala, *Kaśītanāyaka* of Vijayachandana, *Kaśīcharya* of Pushpadanta and *Kaśītanāyaka* have been written in Apabhraṃśa. The *Nāyakaśāstracharya* of Brahmanandadatta and the *Jyotiśśāstracharya* are found in Sanskrit and the *Rajamandit* is in Prākṛit. The other important manuscripts are *Kaśīcharya* of Brahmanandhārāga, pupil of Narendrakīrti, *Ajītaparā* of Vijayasiūha, *Māyapadāśāstracharya* of Jinendra, *Nāyakaśāstracharya* of Siddhantasiūha, *Abhīrūchārā* of Nīlāhara, *Hemantapadāśā* of Anantadharma, *Anurūpa*, *Śaṅkharagomayānīmanā*, *Commataśāstrapāṭha* etc.)

SĀSTRABHANDĀRĀ OF BHĀDĀYĀ: Bhādayā is a village near Pithara junction station. Here is a small Sāstrabhandlā having 140 manuscripts and 20 *patals*. Though there is no rare manuscript, the copies of the following manuscripts are important: (1) *Dharmamālā* by Dharmaśūrya in Hindi, (2) *Pañcamaṃśatāntakāśīcharya* by Sadāśukha Kṣātrivīra in Hindi, (3) *Jānāntarāśāstracharya* by Jālabhāvijayagani in Hindi, (4) *Brahmanālā* by Bhayā Bhagavatlāl in Hindi, (5) *Dharmopadāśāstracharya* by Dharmadatta in Hindi, (6) *Dakṣiṇā* by Ropachanda and (7) *Upadāśapadāśā* by Rāmāliśa.

JAINA JĀNABHĀNDĀRĀ OF JHĀRKHUR: The total number of manuscripts in this Bhandlā is 410. Most of the manuscripts are written in Hindi. The three important manuscripts of this Bhandlā are (1) *Abhayaśāstracharya* by Yugapradhāna Jinachandrasuri (2) *Pañcamaṃśā* by Hemantā and (3) *Hemantapadāśāstracharya* by Tīkambachanda. There are also 500 manuscripts in the Upāṅgā of Yau Kharatara-gachchhā.

SĀSTRABHĀNDĀRĀ OF PATRABHUPUR: The Agravāla Jaina temple of Patbhupur was a seat of the Bhāṭṭarakas who collected a large number of manuscripts for this Bhandlā. It contains about 200 manuscripts. One of them is the biggest *patāl* with one lac *śloka*. It was completed by Jivinarāma in 1860 A.D. at Patbhupur. Most of the works belong to the eighteenth century.

RĀJABAHĀLA JAINA SĀSTRABHĀNDĀRĀ: Sāstrabhandlā of this place possesses a collection of 215 manuscripts including *patals*. Some of

the important and rare manuscripts are as follows: (1) *Karabandhava cūṭa* by Brahama Jinādāsa, (2) *Pravartanavācāśekhara* by Sakalakīrti copied in 1540 A.D., (3) *Holbhāṭā* by Muni Subhachandra composed in 1697 A.D. and (4) *Judhyānātaka* by Triloka Pājanī written in 1841 A.D.

JAINA ŚĀSTRABHANDĀRĀ MĀLAPURĪ: There is a small collection of manuscripts numbering 16 in the Jaina Granthalbandhārā Chandhariyāsī kūt temple. The *Pāñcavākyas* composed by Brahmakapuranachandra in 1540 A.D. is a rare manuscript. In the Granthalbandhārā of the Jaina temple at Ādinātha, *Kāśhapāṇinī* by Muni Subhachandra and *Hemāṅgana* by Harbhakīrti are rare manuscripts. There is also a collection of 74 manuscripts in the Tetāpanti Mandira.

GRANTHABHANDĀRĀ OF ŚRĪ MAHĀVĪRAJ: This place remained a seat of the Bhagīrthas. It possesses 311 manuscripts including the *gṛhāntas*. The manuscripts range from the fifteenth to the nineteenth centuries. Most of the manuscripts of this Bhagīrthā are related to ritual and worship. It is under the management of Śrī Digambara Jaina Aśvayakshera Śrī Mahāvīraji.

ŚĀSTRABHANDĀRĀS OF BHARATPUR: The Śāstrābhāṇḍārā of the Pañchāyāt Mandira has a rich collection of manuscripts. The total number of manuscripts is 801 and the earliest dated manuscript is *Śrīśat-tapāśāntika-gyāntakā* by Muni Sundaragauri copied in 1434 A.D. Most of the manuscripts are in Hindi language. The *Saptaryamantakā* composed by Māyikachandra in 1577 A.D. in Āpabhraṃśa is a rare work. Apart from this, some of the important manuscripts are as follows: (1) *Sāhityābhāṣya* by Gaṅgārāma composed in 1717 A.D. in Hindi, (2) *Pañcāṅgavācā* by Harsha in Hindi, (3) *Samantakandharābhāṣya* by Vīrvaṭhushana in Hindi, (4) *Sāhityābhāṣya* by Jodharāja Kāshyāpā in Hindi prose. There is a manuscript which deals with the playing of chess. The illustrated manuscript named *Shaktīmanavācā* copied in 1712 A.D. has 31 well-coloured illustrations. There is also another *Śāstrābhāṇḍārā* in the Jaina temple of Phocurthā situated at Kojawāl market. It contains 63 manuscripts including *gṛhāntas*. The *Tatvārthasūtra* composed in 1878 A.D. in Hindi prose is a rare manuscript.

ŚĀSTRABHANDĀRĀS OF DURG: Durg is 25 miles from Bhujpur. There are 81 manuscripts in the Śāstrābhāṇḍārā of Pañchāyāmūndira of this

place. Many of the manuscripts are in Hindi, and they belong to the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. A manuscript named *Madhukarmadhya* in Hindi by Devādāsa Puri, the native of this place, is an original copy written by the author himself in 1793 A.D. There is also a collection of manuscripts in the Sāmāghrāṇī of the temple of Rājāsūryānt. Manuscripts of this Bhupālāsi belong to a period between the fifteenth and the seventeenth centuries. The oldest manuscript named *Śaṅkarācārīya* written at Māndakpāśi belonged to 1414 A.D. There are also copies of the important manuscripts such as *Śaṅkarācārīyaśāstra* of Rājānāga in Sanskrit, *Chandrasekharaśāstra* by Śūdrhā in Apabhraṃśa, *Īśvarasūtra* of Guṇabhadra and *Jambhūnāṭhapuritra* by Sakalākṛti in Sanskrit.

The Guṇabhadraśāstra in the Jaina temple of old Durg contains ten manuscripts. Some of the manuscripts are very rare. The Sanskrit work named *Udayachandana* of Kāmatacharya composed in 1431 A.D. is not generally available in other Bhavāṇīs except here. A copy of the *Haripadāśāstra* of Nāthasūda was composed in 1701 A.D. in Hindi. The commentary of Mahānandīya is noteworthy. The Hindi translation of *Udayachandanaśāstra* composed in 1819 A.D. at Amber is also one of the new manuscripts. The *Chandanaśāstra* composed by Chaitanya in Hindi in 1717 A.D. is a rare manuscript.

SĀMAGHRAṆĪYĀNĀS OR KĀNĀS: There is a good collection of 174 manuscripts including *śāstra* in the Jaina Sāmāghrāṇī of Kāmācārīyā Jaina Mandira Kānā. Some of the important manuscripts, which deserve mention, are as follows: (1) *Udayachandana* by Devapadahasari in Sanskrit copied in 1397 A.D. (2) A commentary on the *Īśvarasūtra* in Sanskrit by Prabhābhūda. (3) A commentary on *Saṅkhyasūtra* made by Subhachandra in Sanskrit in 1516 A.D. (4) *Haripadāśāstra* dated 1280 A.D. in Sanskrit by Muni Padmanandi. (5) *Udayachandana* by Kṛṣṇakhaṛa copied in 1348 A.D. (6) *Dakṣaśāstra* by Hanachanda in Apabhraṃśa dated 1367 A.D. (7) *Devapadaśāstra* in Apabhraṃśa by Brahmajñānāśa containing 26 gāthā is a rare manuscript. (8) The *Śāstra* of Padmakṛti was written in 1517 A.D. for presenting it to Muni Narendrakṛti. (9) *Saṅkhyasūtraśāstra* was translated in Rājāsūryānt press by Dayānādasāgari. (10) *Yakṣīśāstra* by Somadevasuri was copied in 1403 A.D. (11) *Ācārāśāstra* by Kumārakavi

was copied in 1492 A.D. at Śrīpatānagara. This manuscript is important as it mentions another name of Bavlōḥ as Śrīpatānagara. The gaṇaka No. 331 of this Bhandāra is also of some significance as it compares several Hindi works written in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries by various authors.

There is also a small Śāstrabhandāra in Agravāla Pañcāyatimandira, Kāra. It contains only two manuscripts. The *Pratibhāṣā* dated 1253 A.D. is incomplete.

ŚĀSTRABHANDĀRĀS OF BAYANA: The total number of the manuscripts is 131, out of which Hindi manuscripts are in majority. The following manuscripts of this Granthabhandāra deserve mention: (1) *Pratibhāṣā* by Anantachandra Laladīyā in Hindi. (2) *Chandrapāñcāyatī* composed by Jalandharacharya in 1594 A.D. in Hindi. (3) *Kṛishṇachandā* by Kṛishṇachandra composed in 1410 A.D. in Hindi. (4) *Samantdhārī Chāṇḍ* by Hemachandra, pupil of Satchandana. (5) *Samantdhārī* by Gayachandra and (6) *Udayagītā* by Chhīhala.

The Śāstrabhandāra of the Terapanthi Mandira at Bavlōḥ is also systematic. There are 133 manuscripts including *pratikā* in the Śāstrabhandāra. The following are manuscripts preserved in this Granthabhandāra: (1) *Pratibhāṣā* composed in 1594 A.D. by Sumanā Sūta in Sanskrit. (2) *Pratibhāṣā* by Lāṣṇacharya. (3) *Pratibhāṣā* by Śaṅkara Pāṇi. (4) *Akṣhapāñcāyatī* by Paṇḍe Keśavadāsa composed in 1679 A.D.

ŚĀSTRABHANDĀRĀS OF JAINA TEMPLES, VAIRA: Vaira is an old town about 37 miles from Bavlōḥ. The Jain temple of this place possess a fine collection of manuscripts. The Śāstrabhandāra situated in the Dīnāchandra Jain Māṇḍira contains 22 manuscripts. The number of *pratikā* is more than that of manuscripts. They contain good collection of Hindi and Sanskrit works. The Granthabhandāra of Pañcāyatīmandira possesses 227 manuscripts, out of which the number of *pratikā* is 42. The *Pratibhāṣā* composed by Trivālā in Apabhraṃśa language is a rare manuscript. There are also 87 manuscripts in the Sogūḍ Jain temple.

GRANTHABHANDĀRĀS OF ALWAR: There are seven Bhandāras in the city having 615 manuscripts. The *Pratibhāṣā* and the *Pratibhāṣā* have been written in golden ink. The *Pratibhāṣā* was composed on Āyurvēda under the patronage of Mahārājā Pratāparīmba.

ŚĀSTRABHANḌĀRĀ OF DŪḢĪ: Dūḡī is a town 12 miles from Tonk. The Bhāṇḍāra of this place contains about 143 manuscripts. The earliest manuscript is *śivadattakathā* in Sanskrit, copied in 1443 A.D. Most of the manuscripts are found in Hindi. Among them, the works of Viśvāśekara such as *Naladāṣṭya*, (2) *śivamamādhārāna*, (3) *Suprasaṃsāraṇī* (4) *Viśvapakṣārādhāṣṭya* are remarkable. The *śloka* of Tanuśīha in Hindi is also a rare work written in various metres and deals with several topics. *Rājula* by *Bīrdhamā* of Gaṇḍakavī is not very common.

GRANTHABHANḌĀRĀS OF TOBĀRĀSISINHI: Todāḥṭīsīnhi remained a great literary centre of the Jains in early times. Various copies of the manuscripts were written at this place. At present, there are two Granthabhanḍāras in the Jaina temples of Aḍināṭha and Pāḍvanāṭha with manuscripts 246 and 105 respectively. The Hindi manuscripts are fairly in large number. The *Chaturvīṃśatīmantra* dates back to 1394 A.D. The other notable manuscripts are (1) *Chaturvīṃśatīmantra* by Jhūnāsīyara, (2) *Devībhāṣya* by Viśvāyānandī composed in 1381 A.D. (3) *Trilokaśāstrīkā* by Mādharachandā Trivāḍya copied in 1443 A.D. and (4) *Pranāthamāstrīkā* by Prāśādchandra.

ŚĀSTRABHANḌĀRĀS OF BASAWĀ: Basawā is an old town and tehsil headquarter of Alwar District. It was a birth place of some Jaina Hindi scholars. Several manuscripts found in Jaina Bhāṇḍāras of Jaipur were copied in Basawā. There are separate *Śāstrabhanḍāras* in Jaina temples of Teṭāpānṭh and Panchāyāt. The manuscripts of these Bhāṇḍāras belong to a period between fifteenth and eighteenth centuries. The manuscripts of Hindi and Prakrit are in a large number. The *Samvatsārasūtrī* of Amṛtchandra is the earliest manuscript copied in 1383 A.D. There are some memorable manuscripts. The illustrated copy of the *Kalpaśāstra* written in golden-ink in 1470 A.D. has 39 paintings on the life of Lord Mahāvīra. Another illustrated copy of the *Kalpaśāstra* is dated 1471 A.D. with 42 paintings. The *Padmanandamahāśāstrīkā* is a commentary written by Kaviṇāṭhāḍa in Sanskrit on the original work named *Padmanandapanchāśāstrī*. The *Mahāyānandācārīkā* by Jayatīkṣaṇa in Sanskrit was copied in 1433 A.D. The *Abhayaśāstrīprabandhāṣṭya* written in Hindi in 1628 A.D. is a rare work.

GRANTHABHANḌĀRĀ OF JAINA TEMPLE, BAḌĀ DHAḌĀ AJMER: The Granthabhanḍāra of the Jaina temple Baḍā Dhaḍā is one of the important

Bhagdīras of Rajasthan. It contains about 2000 manuscripts written in different languages. The *Saṃgrahapāṇḍitīya* is the earliest written manuscript copied in 1426 A.D. Most of the manuscripts belong to a period between the fifteenth century and the eighteenth century A.D. This shows that this Bhagdīra remained a literary centre during these centuries. Manuscripts on the subjects like Āyurveda, Jyotiṣa, and Mantrāśāstra are found in abundance. Some of the important and rare manuscripts in Sanskrit found in this Bhagdīra are as follows: (1) *Adhātmarahasya* by Āśādhara, (2) *Śāntarāmanandahasya* by Virāṭabhaṇḍarī, (3) *Samādhipramāṇa*, (4) *Dīpikā* by Sakalākīrti and (5) *Chārapāṇḍitika* by Chārapāṇ. In Prākṛit and Apabhraṃśa also, some useful manuscripts such as Prākṛit commentary on *Samādhipramāṇa*, (6) *Vijjala-śāntarāmanandīrṇapaka* and *Pāṇḍarika* by Paṇḍarīa have been preserved. In Hindi and Rājasthān languages, *Buddhiprakāśa* and *Uttarakīrtigaṇa* by Doliā, *Pharmakīrtigaṇa* by Vachārīa, *Uttarānandika* by Upādhyāya Vinayasiṅga and *Saṃgrahāṇḍīka* by Thākura written in the sixteenth century are of significance.

GRANTHAMANDIRĀN OF BHUWAI: The well-known Sāstra-ḥandīra of Ailaka Paṇḍitīa Durgamūr Jainā Sarasvatī Bhavana was founded by Ailaka Paṇḍitīa in 1915 A.D. It stores approximately 2000 manuscripts in different languages. The *Paṇḍarāmanandīrṇapāṇḍitīka* of Jayasūratī is the oldest manuscript copied in 1439 A.D. Besides, there are individual collections of *Saṃśodhāṇḍīkā*, *Kanakamala Bhojā* and *Nandakīla Gorā*.

GRANTHAMANDIRĀN OF TONK: There are two Sāstra-ḥandīras at Tonk. The Sāstra-ḥandīra in the temple of Chaudhūrī contains 255 manuscripts and 95 *guthakā*. Most of them are incomplete. One of the Ma. is a commentary on the *Tattvārthasūtra* of Saurasīgara by Kāṇaka written in 1723 A.D. The Grantha-ḥandīra in the temple of Terāpanthīs contains about 382 manuscripts and 30 *guthakā*.

GRANTHAMANDIRĀN OF KOTRA: The Kharataragachīṭhīya kīstra-ḥandīra of Kotra is a rich collection of the manuscripts numbering 1117. The earliest manuscript is the *Rāmāśāntarāmanandīka* written in 1458 A.D. There is an incomplete copy of the Hindi work named *Uttarakīrtiśāntarāmanandīka* probably written in the fourteenth century A.D. Among the other manuscripts following are remarkable: (1) *Uttarakīrtīka* of Yāśovijaya dated 1388 A.D., *Nandakīrtipāṇḍitīka* of Mura Kṛṣṇadāśīka of 1379 A.D. and *Pharmakīrtiśāntarāmanandīka* of Nandakīrtīka of 1429 A.D. in Sanskrit. Besides, there is a manuscript of

Kanthavira written in golden ink in 1273 A.D. The Vinayaka Anandasthāna Granthabhandāgāra belongs to Anandasthānī Mahārāja. Its total number of manuscripts is 311. The *Granthabhandāgāra* of Prabhāchandra goes back to 1391 A.D.

The Granthabhandāgāra of a Jaina temple, Borsāi, possesses 711 manuscripts. The earliest manuscript is the *Prakīrtanā* of Subhachandra in Sanskrit copied in 1491 A.D. Some of the important manuscripts are (1) *Palanidharmasūtra* of Subhachandra in Hindi copied in 1611 A.D., (2) *Chandraprabhāratnamāñjari* written by Bhagvāka Nandakīrti in 1471 A.D. and *Ratnamandir* of Mhāi Sārahakīrti in Hindi composed in 1627 A.D. The works of Vagbhata have been also found in a *Gufakā*.

GRANTHABHANDĀGĀRAS OF JETPUR. There are five Granthabhandāgāras containing more than 1200 manuscripts. The Granthabhandāgāra of the Pāvanasthāna temple contains 113 manuscripts. There is a copy of the *Ratnamandirasūtra* written by Bhaṭṭa Jnādhāra in 1471 A.D. The other rare manuscript is a commentary on the *Prakīrtanā* of Hemachandra in Hindi poem. In the Granthabhandāgāra of the Jaina temple of Ādīnātha, there are 168 manuscripts. The earliest manuscript in this Bhandāgāra is the *Jyotiḥśaṭśatī* with commentary written by Purūṣa Vais in 1459 A.D. The other old manuscripts are *Atyāśāntaśānti* by Ādīśānti, *Yatīśānti* and *Upaśānti* of Dharmadīnāyari. The Granthabhandāgāra of the Jaina temple Abhinavādāyari possesses about 168 manuscripts. The *Ratnamandirasūtra* in Apabhraṃśa language is a rare work. The Granthabhandāgāra of the Mahāvira temple has 172 manuscripts. Most of the manuscripts are in Hindi written in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. There are 243 manuscripts in the Granthabhandāgāra of Jaina temple Nemisātha. The important manuscripts are *Atīśāntaśāntiparvata*, written by Gokula, son of Nara in 1477 A.D. and the *Andhānandāsūtra* of 1607 A.D. There is a *gufakā*, which contains several small works of Yashodāra, a famous Hindi poet of the sixteenth century A.D.

GRANTHABHANDĀGĀRAS OF NARVAJ. There is a collection of 109 manuscripts in the Baghetavāla Jaina temple. Most of them have been written in Sanskrit and Hindi. One *gufakā* contains the works of Hindi poets of the fifteenth, sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. There are about 80 manuscripts in the Granthabhandāgāra of the Terāpanthī Jaina temple. Besides

three Vaimśas written in cloth in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries are of considerable importance. *Bhūtinagaśikāyaṇī* is the earliest one written in 1328 A.D. The *Upasatthābhāṣakāyaṇī* and *Dharmabhāṣakāyaṇī* were written respectively in 1362 A.D. and 1627 A.D. The Granthaśikhaṇḍī of the Agravāla Jaina temple contains a small collection of 57 manuscripts.

GRANTHABHANḌĀRĀ OF DABATH: Dabath is a village at a distance of 10 miles from Bhuj. The Jaina temple of this place has a collection of 123 manuscripts. The earliest manuscript is the *Abhayaśikha-lakṣaṇaṭīkā* by Hemachandragani copied in 1262 A.D. at Ujjain. Some of the noteworthy manuscripts are (1) *Śāntibhāṣanīkā* composed in 1442 A.D. in Hindi, *Viṇayaśikhaṇḍī* by Līlādās in 1586 A.D., *Saṁskṛtamaṇḍalī* by Sūtra Gyaṇacharya of Sonāṭī, *Maṇḍanīśikhaṇḍī* copied in 1600 A.D. and *Rāmyaṇī* by Keśarāja composed in 1525 A.D.

GRANTHABHANḌĀRĀ OF JORHAWAN: The Granthaśikhaṇḍī of the Jaina temple of Jorhawan possesses 289 manuscripts. Most of them deal with religion.

ŚĀSTRABHANḌĀRĀ OF ISALAPATAN: The Śāstraśikhaṇḍī was established by the efforts of Adās Pandita. About 200 manuscripts are preserved in it. The earliest manuscript in the Śikhaṇḍī is the *Maṇḍanīśikhaṇḍī* by Devendra, copied in 1411 A.D.

GRANTHABHANḌĀRĀS OF DHANPUR: At Dhanpur, there are some Jaina temples which possess a fairly good collection of manuscripts. The Śāstraśikhaṇḍī of Saṁbhavīnātha has about 107 manuscripts. The earliest manuscript in it is the *Maṇḍanīśikhaṇḍī* of Bhāgopala, copied in 1428 A.D. It contains about 25 parts Hindi work. The important manuscripts are *Viṇayaśikhaṇḍī* by Aśvarya Jyotiṣa composed in 1327 A.D., *Bhāṣaśikhaṇḍī* by Somdevī, *Maṇḍanīśikhaṇḍī* by Bhaluka Vastopala written in 1497 A.D., *Hemachandragani* by Bhaluka Gyaṇasigara composed in 1575 A.D., *Maṇḍanīśikhaṇḍī* in *Paṭicharita* by Rāmaśubhānagarī, *Maṇḍanīśikhaṇḍī* of Bhāgavī, *Maṇḍanīśikhaṇḍī* by Prachanda in 1614 A.D., *Maṇḍanīśikhaṇḍī* by Dharmasiddha in 1641 A.D., *Chandīśikhaṇḍī* on music and *Maṇḍanīśikhaṇḍī* of Aśvāhara.

There are about 123 manuscripts and 50 Guṇakās in the Granthaśikhaṇḍī of the Agravāla Jaina temple. Majority of the manuscripts are in

Hindi. The notable manuscripts are (1) *Chitrakūṭaprahallā* of Kalyāṇakīrti composed in 1643 A.D., (2) *Mahāpadasa kī Champī* by Gaṅgādāsa, (3) *Loka-mangalādharmasūtra* by Sumatīkīrti, (4) *Akṣayāgastīka* by Jayakīrti composed in 1610 A.D., (5) *Sadaśimasthānī Champī* by Lālākavi composed in 1579 A.D., (6) *Jamasthāna* by Ratnabhadra in Hindi, (7) *Commataśrīmī Champī* by Muni Jitkīrti composed in 1612 A.D., (8) *Ajitanātharāya* and *Jambhārāya* by Brahmajinadāsa, (9) *Buddhāśrī* by Brahmajyōtsnā in 1518 A.D. and (10) *Śrāvākaśāstra* by Dharmavīroḍa.

The Kharādīvāla Jaina temple preserves a small collection of manuscripts numbering about 135. Most of the manuscripts have been written in Hindi. The oldest manuscript is the *Bhāratīastanana* copied in 1508 A.D. Some of the important manuscripts are (1) *Caṣṭakāśāstra* of Rājasundara composed in 1297 A.D., (2) *Kāmarāya* by Mādhavādāsa, (3) *Champiastīlākalāpika* of Muni Rājachanda composed in 1623 A.D. and (4) *Yimandharasūtrīstanana* by Kamalavijaya in 1625 A.D. The Sūrabhagīrāya of Agarvāla Jaina temple Dhānamagdi has a collection of 95 manuscripts. The *Sarvārthasiddhi* of Puṣyapāda dates back to 1513 A.D. Other well-known manuscripts are (1) *Pantābrahmacakāśa* by Rāmachandra, (2) *Śākhakāśāpikā* by Mahēśvarakavi in 1500 A.D. and (3) *Dharmaparthakāśa* by Sumatīkīrti copied in 1591 A.D.

Besides, there are small manuscript libraries. About 500 manuscripts are available in Varadhamaṇa Jīṇabhadra. In the collection of Koghīrī, 200 manuscripts are preserved. Gaṇeshīlā Melua also possesses about 250 manuscripts. Besides, there are the collections of Yati Vivēkavijaya and Yati of Khārtaragachchha.

Manuscript libraries are also found at Bhīṇḍāra and Bhāwāra. There are about 1500 manuscripts in the possession of Yati Mānaka. The late Yati Bhāgachanda possessed a good collection of the manuscripts.

GRANTHAMANDIRAS OR JAGRUKH GRY: In Jodhpur city, there are four Jaina libraries. In the collection of Bhāgārāya Udaichanda, about 1100 manuscripts are available. The Jainaramapurakṣālaya contains about 1500 manuscripts. The number of manuscripts preserved in the Ratnasuri Pustakālaya of the Jaina Vidyālaya is about 400. Besides, there are the collections of manuscripts in the temple of Keśariyā and the temple of Koghīrī.

HARISĀGARA JĀNABHANḌĀRA, TADĪVATĀ: The total number of manuscripts in this Bhanḍāra is about 2110. Some of the remarkable manuscripts are (1) *Rāshobhavarasāhita* in Ilīvalī, (2) *Śrīgoparāśaktika* by Jānabāyapa, (3) *Namaskāntakāraṇa* by Jagadeśvara, *Yamāntakāntakāraṇa*, *Namāntakāraṇa*, *Vimānāntakāraṇa*, *Alakṣāntakāraṇa*, *Karmakāraṇa* and *Kāraṇaprabhākaritī*.

GRANTHABHANḌĀRAS OF PHALGUNI: There are three collections of manuscripts in this place. The collection of Phulachanda Jhābka contains about 400 manuscripts. Besides, there are 371 manuscripts in Sādhvī Puṣhpasī Jānabhanḍāra and 130 manuscripts in the Mahāvīra Jānabhanḍāra of Dharmasālā.

GRANTHABHANḌĀRA OF MĀRŌTHA: There were about more than 1000 manuscripts in the Jaina temple of Sāha of this place but most of them have been destroyed. At present, only 200 manuscripts are preserved in the Jaina temple of Terūpanthīs.

NAGAR GRANTHABHANḌĀRA: The Bhanḍāra of the Bhagīraka of Nagar¹ is also famous in Rajasthan. The total number of manuscripts in this collection is more than 14 thousand, out of which two thousand are *gopādhā*. All the manuscripts are on paper written in a period between the fourteenth century A.D. and the eighteenth century A.D. These manuscripts dealing with a variety of subjects have been written in Sanskrit, Prakṛit, Apabhraṃśa, Rājasthānī and Hindī. Non-Jaina manuscripts are also available. Some historical poems concerning the lives of the Bhagīrakas and Āchāryas are also noticed.

Some rare manuscripts of this Bhanḍāra are *Namanta* by Bhāu, *Chetanopādādhānta*, *Jagadpāṇitī* in Rājasthānī by Jagadapa, *Bārahakṣatī* by Paṇḍita Mahāśā, *Kṛishṇaprabhī* of Kālha, *Varaṇāśikāntakāraṇa* by Maṇḍalāchārya Śrī Bhūshana, *Maṇḍalāchārya Śrībhūshanaṇṇa*, *Namāntakāraṇa* by Dāmodara, son of Jinadeva, *Chandraprabhākaritī* of Dāmodara, *Jānabāyapāśākyānamāyānamāntakāraṇa* by Haritāja, *Vaṇḍāntakāraṇa* by Bhūshana, *Govindāntakāraṇa* by a pupil of Bhavavakīrī, *Sampānkāraṇa* by Harisīma, *Tattvārthakāntakāraṇa* by Yogadeva, *Māyāpāntakāraṇa* by Śrībhūshana, *Sambhāntakāraṇa* by Tejapāla,

1. *Āśikānta*, XI, p. 128.

preached in Rajasthan, participated in various religious functions and made considerable contributions to the moral life of the people. Their works on various aspects of Jaina religion and philosophy and various other subjects including astronomy, medicines and law adorn the Jaina Bhagdinas of Rajasthan. They exercised an immense influence on the rulers of Rajasthan and a few of them attracted the attention of even Akbar and Jahangir and succeeded in obtaining from them substantial recognition for the Jaina places of worship. They themselves were highly honoured by the conferment of high titles. Their services to the cause of general education and popular literature is great. Their life of extreme penance and lofty ideals was inspiring. Their teaching moderated the materialism of the age.

As the Jaina monks were ever moving about and were not interested about biographical details, very little is known about their personal lives. There are several instances of a Jaina saint of having been born in Rajasthan, trained in Gujarat and done his writing work either in one state or the other. In the same way, one born in Gujarat had his field of activity in Rajasthan.

In spite of Jainism having been associated with Rajasthan from very early times, we have no definite information about the details of the lives of the saints before Haribhadra.

1. JAINA MONKS

HARIBHADRA: In the eighth century, probably between 703-44 and 773 A.D., Haribhadra, the most distinguished Jaina scholar, lived in Rajasthan. He was born in a Brahmana family at Chitrakuta, the modern Chittor. He was the Purushita of a king named Jitala about whom history knows nothing. He was well-versed in the Vedic lore.

It is said that he was deeply inspired by a Jaina monk and as a result of it, he embraced Jainism. Being asked by his Guru to write 144 volumes, he wrote a number of books on logic, Yoga, Dharma, ethics etc. Out of them only about fifty are now available. He also raised his powerful voice against the corrupt practices prevalent in Juman.¹

SIDDHARSHI: The next distinguished Jaina monk of Rajasthan is Siddharshi born at Srimdia in Marwar. He was the son of Subharshika. He was initiated and was named Siddharshi. In 906 A.D., he composed the

1. *Purāṇapratibandhānupāya*, pp. 103-05 and *Pratibhāsanāvivarta*, pp. 183-212.

allegorical novel named *Upamattakhanaprasaśchārī*. The Saṅgha being pleased conferred the title of 'Vyākhyānakāra' on him.

Later on, he made a deep study of Buddhism, so much so, that even the Buddhists held him in high esteem for his scholarship and highly virtuous life. In course of time, the title of Śūri was conferred on him by his Guru.

JINEŚVARASŪRI—Jineśvarasūri occupies a prominent place in Jain history. His early name was Śrīdhara. He and his brother Śrīpati were Brāhmanas by caste. They came to Bhīṣṇāgari where they met a rich man named Lakshmanpa. He introduced them to Vardhamānasuri. Being impressed by their deep scholarship, Vardhamānasuri initiated them into Jainism and instructed them to preach it.

At this time, the Chaityavāsi sect was very powerful. Actually, Vardhamānasuri rose in revolt against it and founded Vidhinārya; but Jineśvarasuri by his efforts organized his followers into a community and made it country-wide. He went to Anandapura where the Chaityavāsis were very strong. He stayed in the house of the Putabha Sammelasa. He defeated Surāchārya, the leader of the Chaityavāsis, in the court of the king Darlabharṣa at Pīgara and got the title of 'Kharasura'. He established his own sect known as Vidhinārya at Anandapura. Later on, it was known as the Kharataragachchha. Then his reputation spread to neighbouring regions like Marwar, Mewar, Malwa, Vāgaṇ, Sindh and Delhi, and a large number of Śākyakas became his devoted followers.

Jineśvarasuri and his young brother Buddhisāgarasuri generally lived and moved together. In 1023 A.D. they were at Bhūṭipura (Jalor), where Jineśvarasuri wrote a commentary on the *Arishṭasūtras* of Harishaden and Buddhisāgarasuri completed the *Yugapada Prāchīnārthā*.

Jineśvarasuri brought about a renaissance in Jainism, and, therefore, he is called the 'Yugapradhāna'. New temples known as Vidhināryas were built. There came also some change in the form of worship. New Gachchhas, new castes and new Gotras also came into existence. The original *śāstras* were revised and several commentaries were prepared. He had a large number of disciples, the chief among them were Abhayadeva, Jinachandra and Jinabhadra.¹

1. *Ishtāśāstra Jaina Kāyasthāgama*, p. 4. *Yugapradhāna Jinachandrasuri*, p. 10 & *Kharataragachchha Arishṭasūtras*.

JINAVALLABHASŪRI: The next great Jaina saint is Jinavallabhasuri, who was the follower of Chaityavāsī sect in the beginning. At Pāṇan, he got an opportunity to study the scriptures under Abhayadevasuri, the saint of Vidhināga. As a result, he gave up the Chaityavāsī sect and accepted Vedhināga. At his directions, his followers constructed the Jaina temples known as Vidhichaityas.

At this time, the followers of the Chaityavāsī sect were powerful in Mewar. With a view to diminishing their influence, Jinavallabhasuri left Pāṇan for Chitor, where he converted a large number of people to Jainism and celebrated the consecration ceremony of several images and temples. From Chitor, he came to Dhārā. The King invited him to his palace, where he listened to his religious discourses. He was so highly pleased with his extraordinary poetic talent that he offered him a jāgira of three villages and a handsome present in cash. He did not accept either of them but requested that the king should grant two *paratthadhammas* daily from his customs house for the maintenance of two Kharanara temples.

From Dhārā, Jinavallabhasuri came to Vṛunda, where he addressed large gatherings. He also came to Nagaur where the installation ceremony of Nemiñjalāya was performed under his supervision. As he converted several people to Jainism, it was natural for him to form many *Ganas*.¹

JINADATTASŪRI: Jinadattasuri is one of the great Jaina monks, who propagated Jainism in Rajasthan. He was born at Dhavalakapuri in 1073 A.D. in Hunchada caste. His parents were Vāldhga and Vālnaladevī. His early name was Somachanda. His *śiṣhā* Guru was Vāchuka Devabhadragami, and he was given the name of Somachandra Muni. Being impressed by his extreme austerities and genius, Dharmadevopādhyāya made him Āchārya at Chitor in 1112 A.D. and named him Jinadattasuri.

Jinadattasuri was widely respected even by the Rajput rulers of Rajputana and Gujarat for his learning and piety. The Chālukyan rulers Nagarkīja and his son Siddharīja respected him. Jinadattasuri was a contemporary of Arjunīja Chaulāna of Ajmer, who honoured the Āchārya by visiting him at his own place and by granting his followers a suitable site for a big Jaina temple. He converted a large number of people to Jainism

1. *Khamtarupachchha Drikhagurvinālī & Antihāṣṭha Jaina Kūpavasthānaka*, pp. 14-6.

and established many Grottoes. Besides, he is said to have given *śikṣā* to thousands and thousands. Having installed Jinasūchandra on his seat, he expired in 1141 A.D. at Ajmer. On account of his popularity among the masses, he came to be known as Dādāji.¹

VĀSUDĒVYASŪRI. Devasūri was born in 1143 A.D. at Madhuvan near Mount Abu in the Prāpāda family. He was the son of Virañjaya and Jinalaya. When cholera broke out in the town, Virañjaya left the town and came to Bharuḥ. The early name of Devasūri was Parṣachandra.

From his early childhood Parṣachandra was highly intelligent. He impressed a Jain monk who asked his master to give the boy to him. He was given *śikṣā* in 1152 A.D. and was named Rāmachandra. Within a short time, he became well-versed in the science of *śāstra, bhāṣya, śānta* and *himsa*, and scholars began to admire his scholarship. He defeated his opponents in the discussion held at Dhavalakapura, Kachari, Sanchi, Chitor, Gopagiri, Dīdāḥ and Bharuḥ. Impressed by his deep scholarship the Guru installed him on the seat of *Āchārya* in 1172 A.D. and gave him the name of Devasūri.

Then Devasūri came to Dhavalakapura on the invitation of Udayā and performed the installation ceremony of the image of Śhaṇḍharavara. From there, he travelled to Mt. Abu for pilgrimage. In course of his journey, Śrī Devasūri came to Nagaur. Alodā, the ruler of this place, received him warmly. In the meanwhile, Siddharāja, the ruler of Gujarat, wanted to besiege Nagaur but when he was informed of the presence of Devasūri, he desisted. Then he invited Śrī Devasūri to Patan and kept him there for four months.

Śrī Devasūri defeated the famous Dīgambara Jain Saint of Narmāyā named Kamaṇḍachandra in the discussion held in the court of the king Siddharāja Jayasīṃha. In 1177 A.D., he got the Jain temple constructed in the town called Phalavandhāḥ (Phalodhi) and performed the installation ceremony of the image. In the town of Arasara also, the image of Narmāyā was installed.

HIMAVANASŪRI. The most prominent Jain monk is Himachandra under whose banner Jainism prospered greatly both in Rajasthan and Gujarat. He

1. *Ābhīnāva Jaina Kāyaśāstragruha*, pp. 14, 46 and 363 and *Kharatungachakha-Ājīṇḍgurishruti*.

was born in 1089 A.D. at Dhandulka, a town in the district of Ahmedabad and was named Chāṅgadeva. His parents were Chāchaga and Vilasi of Belmodha caste. Both the parents were adherents of the doctrine of Jaina. Vilasi handed over her son to a monk named Devachandra. The circumstances which led Chāṅgadeva to enter the order of Jains are more or less romantic. Devachandra took the boy with him to Lambay where he was first initiated to the temple of Pāśvādā in 1093 A.D. On this occasion, the famous Udayan held the usual festival and Chāṅgadeva received the name of Somachandra. In 1095 A.D., he was ordained as Śāhira at Nāgam by Devasuri. On this occasion, he again changed his name and was now called Hemachandra.

The patron of Hemachandra was Jayasinha Siddhārāja, who felt attracted and impressed by his deep and wide scholarship, used to listen to his discourses. Hemachandra helped Kumarapāla in securing his accession to the throne. He is said to have foretold that he was going to be the future ruler of Gujarat. It was for this reason that he had deep reverence for the Jaina religion. Kumarapāla was originally a devotee of Śiva but was converted to Jainism by Hemachandra. After his conversion which is said to have taken place in 1119 A.D., he aspired to make Gujarat a model Jaina state. He personally gave up hunting animals, eating meat and using accessories, displaying and animal fights. In addition, he erected the Jaina temples and favoured the literary and scientific efforts of the Jains.

Hemachandra was called the 'Omniscient of the Kālī age' (*Kālīkā Yogyak*), the title which he well deserved. He was more a scholar than a poet. By his efforts, Jaina literature made considerable progress in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. His contributions to the general Sanskrit literature are also noteworthy. He wrote useful and important works on grammar, lexicography, poetics, prosody, philosophy and history.

Hemachandra's services to education were as remarkable as his literary activities. He trained a number of pupils who have left works on various branches of Sanskrit literature. The chief among those pupils are Rāmachandra, Gaṇachandra, Mahendrasuri, Devachandra, Varāhamiharsuri, Udayachandra, Yaśaśchandra and Bālachandra.¹

1. The Life of Hemachandrāchārjya.

JINAKULASŪRI: Jinakulāsuri is the most popular Jain saint and is also known as Dādāji. He was born in the village Sansiyānā in Marwar in 1287 A.D. His original name was Karmaṇ. In 1298 A.D., he received initiation from Jinachandrasuri and was named Kuśalakīrti. At Nagaur in 1310 A.D., he was given the title of Vāchanīchārya by Jinachandrasuri. In 1319 A.D., Jinachandra passed away and the title of Suri was given to Jinakulāla at Putari amidst great rejoicings.

Rājapati of Delhi made arrangement for the sojourn of Jinakulāsuri. He passed through Kanyābhayana, Nathad, Phalodhi, Marukota, Nagaur, Meera, Jalor, Salmāla and at last reached Patan. The members of the Saṅgha requested Jinakulāla to accompany them. He consented and started from Patan and reached Saruṇjaya where he performed several religious activities. He worshipped the idol by composing new *stotras*. Yalodhara and Devendra were initiated to monkhood by him. He celebrated the installation ceremony of the image of Neminātha. The consecration ceremony of the images of Jinapati and Jinavarasuri was also performed by him. On the occasion of Nandīvaramahotsava, Sukhachitriganī was given the title of 'Vāchanīchārya.' Afterwards, he returned to Patan with the Saṅgha safely.

In 1324 A.D., Virāṭamahotsava was celebrated in Patan with great rejoicings for fifteen days under the guidance of Jinakulāsuri. The images of the Tirthaṅkaras and the Āchāryas were sent to the various places such as Jalor, Devaṛṇipara, Saruṇjaya etc. Tejapālā celebrated the Nandīvaramahotsava at Patan in which Sumansāra, Udayasāra, Jāyasāra and Dharmasundari were initiated into monkhood. The famous Śrīvaka of Bhīmappalli named Viradeva called Jinakulāsuri from Patan to Bhīmappalli and requested him to accompany the Saṅgha to Saruṇjaya. After passing through various cities and villages, the Saṅgha reached Saruṇjaya. He celebrated the consecration ceremony of the Vira Chaturya at Bhīmappalli, Chinnāmani Pīravanātha temple at Jaipur and Pīravanātha temple at Jalor.

The Śrāvakas of Sindh invited Jinakulāsuri for propagation of Jainism. He went there and organised various ceremonies such as the *Pratishtha*, *Pravratana*, *Māhārapana* and *Nandīmahotsava* in order to give an impetus to Jainism. He wandered through various places and impressed

the people by his religious discourses. This caused a great religious awakening among the people. He spent a rainy season at Devadūjpurā where he caught high fever and died in 1352 A.D.

Jinakulacharya was a distinguished scholar, well-versed in different branches of learning like grammar, law, literature, poetry, astronomy, magic, etc. He could not devote so much to literature as he was engaged in other activities. So great was his influence that, in his honour, a number of *stotra*, *charita*, *prabhu* and *Chandika* have been composed in many a village, city and holy place. The people of Svayambhūta, Patangachhola, Sāhānāvāsi and Terūpanthi worship him with great devotion.¹

HIRAVIJAYASIN: The most distinguished Jain teacher at the time of Akbar was Hiravijayasini. He was the leader of the Vajrasūchīn sect of the Jainas and was born at Palanapur. He was the son of Kamāra and Nārhi of the Bēt Chavāla family. His original name was Hīrati. He was initiated to religious life by Vijayadasari in 1419 A.D. and was named Hīrahārsha. After getting education from Muni Hārahārsha, he went to Devagiri in the south in order to learn Nyāyadharma from Naiyāyika Brāhmaṇa. He made a close and deep study of various branches of learning.

After his return from the Deccan, Vijayadasari made him a Pundit in 1451 A.D. Next year, he was made a Upādhyāya at Nādhī. Then in the same year, he was made a Suri at Sirsi. On this occasion, Chhāga Melnā, a descendant of Dhannā Paravāla, the builder of Ranakpur temple, celebrated a great festival.

In 1482 A.D. when Akbar heard of the lofty virtues and deep learning of Hiravijaya, he ordered the Viceroy of Gujarat to request him to visit his court. In response to the summons of the viceroy, the monk went to Ahmadabad where he exchanged views with the royal representative. He refused to accept all the costly gifts presented to him and, in accordance with the rules of his order, he started on his long journey to Panchpur Sikri on foot.

On his way, passing through Badnapur, Mahāsana, Patan, Baradi, Siddhipur and other places, Hiravijaya reached Saratana. At this place lived a Bhīla Chief named Anura. He along with his eight wives came to hear Suri's sermon, and he took a vow not to kill any muscivorous animal. He then went to Aisū and Rāsa Surāna of Sirsi welcomed him and took a vow to

1. *Dādā Śrī Jinakulacharya and Kharataraguchchha Prīhadgorsvārāi*.

refrain from drinking, hunting and even eating. After that, passing through Sangar, Chārsu, Barān and Mathura, he reached Fatehpur Sikri where he was accorded a royal reception; and Akbar was asked to look after his comforts until the emperor found leisure to converse with him. After much discussion upon the problems of religion and philosophy first with Akbar Paul, the Muslim luminary of the age, and then with Akbar, he paid a visit to Agra. At the close of the rainy season, he returned to Fatehpursikri.

From the inscription by Hemavijaya dated 1592 A.D., in the porch of the eastern entrance of the Ādinātha temple of Sāmrajaya hill, it appears that Hemavijaya persuaded the emperor in 1592 A.D. to issue an edict forbidding the slaughter of animals for six months, to abolish the confiscation of the property of the deceased persons, the surjila tax and Sukala, to set free many captives, spared birds and animals and to present Sāmrajaya to the Jains. Fishing was also prohibited at Fatehpursikri.

In 1596 A.D., Hemavijayasuri came to Nāgaour where he spent the rainy season. Mahājāla, the finance minister of the king Jagmala, treated him with great respect. Indurāja, an official of Bairat, invited him; but he could not go and sent his pupil Kalyānavijaya for the performance of the consecration ceremony. After that, he went to Abu and then to Sirsi where he spent the rainy season on the persuasion of the ruling chief. On his advice, Rāva Surdāsa abolished some taxes. Once the Rāva had imprisoned one hundred innocent Śōṭvalas due to certain misunderstanding. The leaders of the Śaṅgha had tried their best to secure their release but the Rāva did not listen to them. At last, he released them on the advice of Surji.

From Sirsi, Hemavijaya came to Parān where he spent the next rainy season. From there, he started for Pīlkhān. The function was organised in his honour which was attended by several Jains. He also passed the rainy season at Unā. Ājankhān, the governor of Gujarat, came to pay his respects. It was all due to Śaṭi's magnetic personality and the honour given to him by Akbar. At this time, Jāmasīdān of Jāmanagara with his minister named Abaji Bhānsālī reached Unā to pay his compliments to the Āchārya. Hemavijaya also induced the official Khān Muḥammad to give up violence. He celebrated the consecration ceremony of the temple in 1598 A.D. and in the same year, he started himself to death in the approved Jain fashion.¹

1. *Akbar the Great* by Smith, pp. 114-118 and *collected poet devotional Akbars*.

JINACHANDRA: Jinachandra was a famous Āchārya of the Khara-magachhedra sect. He was born in 1308 A.D. at Khetras in Jodhpur of Srivast Sāhu and Srivadevi of Bish Osavala family. His original name was Sultan. He received his initiation in 1347 A.D. from Jinanāthkyasūri and his *śikṣā* name was Sumatidhara. In 1353 A.D., he obtained the title of Suri from Guṇaprabhasūri.

While Akbar was holding his court at Lahore, he heard the fame of the Suri and wanted to hear him. He summoned Karmachandra Bhachchāyats and requested him to invite the sage to his court. Considering his old age and hot season, Karmachandra pleaded that it would be difficult for him to come from Canday. Then, the request asked him to write a letter to send his disciple Mānasihha whom the Suri sent along with six other religious followers. Receiving also an urgent letter from Karmachandra, the Suri started his journey on foot, gradually reached Sirahi and observed the *Chaturvartī* at Jalor. Afterwards, he started, and passing through many villages and cities, reached Lahore in 1591 A.D. with thirty one Jaina Panditas in a great procession and was courteously received by the emperor. After a religious discourse on *Ātma, bhava* etc., he was conducted to his residence. He used to come daily to the palace for the discourse on religion. Akbar used to address him as a Great Master (*Bṛhadguru*).

Hearing of the destruction of the Jaina temples at Dwarka, Jinachandra prevailed upon Akbar to issue an imperial *farman* for the protection of the Jaina holy places such as Saranajaya, Pilibhāt and Girnar. The necessary order was sent to Azamkhān, the Subadar of Ahmedabad. The places of pilgrimages were put in charge of Karmachandra.

Just before starting for Kashmir, Akbar met the Suri and at his instance issued a *farman* ordering the prohibition of the slaughter of animals for seven days (*Nauzat* or *Targant*) every year in the month of *Āshvīn*. Akbar with the disciples of Jinachandra namely Mānasihha, Harshayās and some others reached Kashmir and observed the vow of non-violence for eight days. He returned to Lahore in 1592 A.D. At this instance, Jinachandra gave the title of Āchārya to Mānasihha, calling him Jinanāthasuri. On the advice of Karmachandra, Akbar gave the title of 'Yugaprabhā' or 'Chief of the Age' to Jinachandra. At the persuasion of Suri, Akbar gave

protection for a year to all animals of the sea adjoining Cambay, the place of pilgrimage.

Jinachandra was held in high esteem by Jahangir also. In 1611 A.D., being incensed at the misconduct of the dissolute Darwazi, Jahangir not only banished him but ordered that members of other Jain sects should also be ousted from the realm. This caused wide spread consternation amongst all sections of the Jains. The news reached Jinachandrasuri who travelled from Patan to Agra and called on the emperor. After a prolonged discussion on religion, Surji succeeded in persuading the emperor to withdraw the order. He breathed his last in 1615 A.D. at Bilārī in Marwar.¹

JINACHANDRASURI: After Jinachandrasuri, his *paramārtha* Jinachandrasuri became the leader of the Kharataragachhda. In Rajasthan, he mostly lived at Bikaner, Sirohi etc. In the *Śrī Jinachandrasuri* of Rāyasmūdhā, it is related that he had great influence on Jahangir. At his request, the emperor assured safety to all living creatures. He conferred upon him the title of 'Yugapradhān'. In 1616 A.D. Jinachandrasuri spent the *Chaturmas* at Bikaner. In the *Jinachandrasuri* composed in 1622 A.D. by Śrīdām, it is written that Jahangir was much anxious to see him, and he sent an officer to Bikaner to invite him. But unfortunately, he died in 1617 A.D. on his way to Agra.

The events mentioned in the Jain *śūl* are more or less of the legendary character, intended to glorify the Jain order, and can only be accepted when supported by some contemporary evidence. The attitude of Jahangir to Jinachandrasuri (Abas Mīrāsīdha) and towards the Jains, as it is made to appear in them, does not seem to have been correctly represented. At the time of Ekstrū's rebellion, Mānasīdha prophesied that Jahangir's reign would last only for two years. This encouraged Rāyasmūdhā of Bikaner to rebel. He was, however, pardoned by Jahangir who waited for an opportunity to punish Mānasīdha. In 1616 A.D. when Jahangir went to Gujarat, he persecuted the Jains as their temples were the centres of disturbance and their religious leaders were accused of immoral practices. He summoned Mānasīdha to the court but the latter took poison on his way from Bikaner and died. Evidently there seems to be more truth in these facts than the above concerned story.

1. *Kharataragachhda Chaturmaspadda*, *Abhāsda Jinachandrasuri-Sahgraha*, pp. 58, 81 and 82 and *Yugapradhān Jinachandrasuri*.

2. JAINA STATESMEN

Almost every state of Rajasthan and every principality of Jaina was served by more than one Jaina minister or manager. Naturally, all of them were not pious people, but some of them led a life of total abstinence and were deeply devoted to their masters who could not but respect the general principles of their religion. The ministers and officers persuaded by practice and not by precepts. Their masters and all others who came into close contact with them were deeply impressed by the simplicity of their personal life and began to respect the religion which was responsible for their high morality, their high official position, social status, learning, loyalty and devotion. They are too numerous to be described but a brief outline of the life of some of them seems to be necessary.

Vimala: We have no information about the Jaina statesmen of Rajasthan before Vimala¹ who is the most famous Jaina statesman of the eleventh century. He was a son of Vira, the *Mahatma* of the King Muladitya, and rose to the position of the Minister of Bhima I by sheer dint of his military skill. Probably, he fought against Mahmud Ghazni with his master. According to the *Prabandha*, he defeated the twelve *Sakas*. It cannot be wholly legendary and must contain some elements of truth. They may be depredators or generals left by Mahmud Ghazni after his return from India. He also assisted his master in restoring Saurashtra and Kutch which became independent taking advantage of the Muslim invasion.

Afterwards, Vimala helped his master Bhima in capturing Chandravati, a place near Abu, from Dhandlika. Bhima made him a governor in recognition of his services. In course of time, Vimala restored friendship between Dhandlika and Bhima. Bhima returned his kingdom to Dhandlika but kept Vimala as his representative of Abu as before.

Vimala was a deeply religious and self-sacrificing man. He led an extremely simple life and lavished almost all of his immense personal wealth on the construction of a wonderful temple on Mount Abu.

Udayana: Udayana was the well-known statesman in the time of Chaulukyan rulers namely Siddharaja and Kumarapala. He was a native of

1. *Vimalacharita*. See also *Pratiharaputandhanavardha* (*Vimalacharita-prabandha*, pp. 81-82.)

Marwar, born at Jalor. He was a Jaina by religion and Śeṣmīla by caste. At the suggestion of some persons, he went to Karchavati and stayed at the place of a painter, named Lachhi. Fortune smiled on him and he became a rich man. In course of time, he won name and fame and he was appointed as the governor of Cambay by Siddharāja.

Udayana was a devout Jaina and enormously rich. He was responsible for the initiation of Hemachandra at the age of eight, when he was the governor of Cambay. According to the *Prabandhaśhukāmūṣi*, it was he who persuaded his father Chūchhiga to consent for the initiation of his son. When Kumārāpāla was wandering as an exile, persecuted by the fury wrath of his uncle, it was Udayana who gave him shelter. There is little doubt that he remained in touch with him through out his exile and made efforts to secure him the throne.

Udayana was a true follower of Jainism. Once Kumārāpāla sent him against the king of Sorajha. He left his army in Vinchamānapura and went to Vināśichūda. While worshipping, he saw a rat with a burning wick entering a hole in the wooden temple. Seeing this, Udayana determined to build a stone temple and vowed to take only one meal till the task was accomplished. Then he reached the camp and marched against Samarsa. In a battle, the imperial army was defeated; but he was mortally wounded. The minister thought that he was dying before having rebuilt the temples of Vināśichūda and Bhīṛgokachchhā. His officers assured him that his sons Vāghela and Amal-hapa would carry out his plans. He passed away peacefully when his sons assured him to fulfil his vow. When Kumārāpāla heard about his death, he was much grieved. Udayana had four sons Vāghela, Chūchhāla, Ambada and Sola. Vāghela and Ambada became the Prime Minister and Minister respectively in his reign.¹

VASUPATA: Vasupāla, the prime minister of the Vāghela king Vināśavala of Dhavalaka or Dholka during the thirteenth century, was not only a statesman but also a great patron of art and literature. Vasupāla and his twin brother Tejapāla were born in an aristocratic Prāgyāja family of Anandavāda in 1205 A.D. They were the sons of Kumāradevi, the widow remarried to Aśvatthja, a military commander of the Vāghelas. During their childhood, they lived with their father in a town called Samantalahapura which

1. *Prabandhaśhukāmūṣi*, pp. 67-68 and pp. 104-105.

was given to him by the Chālukyan king as a reward for his services.¹ After the death of Aravali, the two brothers with their mother went to Mangalī where they lived until the death of their mother. After that, they seem to have begun their political career. He served first under Bhīmāditya and his services were known to the court of Dhavalakka only afterwards.² We do not know when Vastupāla began the service of Bhīma, but it is certain that he and his brother were appointed at Dhavalakka in 1220 A.D.

ECONOMIC AND POLITICAL CONSOLIDATION: When Vastupāla was appointed the governor of Samantattha or Canbay, he improved the economic conditions of the people and reformed administration. For this purpose, he devised an excellent administrative machinery in order to put an end to *Maṅṣanyaya*. He put a check on unscrupulous people who were making money by bare means and indulging in piracy.³ In this way, he succeeded in checking corruption with an iron hand. All these measures naturally brought about confidence among the people.⁴ He also improved the moral tone of the people. As a result of it, life and property became safe and secure, and thus it led to the prosperity of trade and commerce.

WARRIOR DEEDS: After establishing peace in the kingdom, Vastupāla launched upon the career of conquests. Samikha, the ruler of Lāṇa, claimed the part of Samanttha, which was in the possession of Virādhanavala and attacked it. After a fierce fight at a place called Vayakupa (Vadavā) near Samantattha, Samikha was defeated. The Yādava King Sindhava of Devagiri from the south and the four Marwari rulers from the north made a joint attack on the kingdom of Virādhanavala. Showing shrewd statesmanship on this occasion, Vastupāla became successful in making truce with the four chiefs from Devagiri.

The *Prabandha* describe several other warlike deeds of Virādhanavala and his two ministers. First of all, they conquered the rulers of Vāmanasthali (Modern Vantali, near Junagarh). Śālagama and Chāmunda, the brothers of Virādhanavala's queen Jayamaladevi declined to pay homage to Virādhanavala.⁵ They were slain in a combat. The great riches of the palace of Vamanasthali fell into the hands of Virādhanavala. Virādhanavala led another attack against

1. *Vastupālāchārītra*, Chapter I.

2. *Narasimhaīyapaṇḍita*, XVI, 35.

3. *Kirtikanvadi*, IV, 16.

4. *Vastupālāchārītra*, IV, 49.

5. *Prabandhakopā of Rājasekhara*, p. 103.

Bhimsenśha of the Pratihāra clan sailing at Bhadravara in Kutch but could not conquer him; he had to return only after making a peace treaty.¹ By it, a new friend was made and Kutch border became free from danger. After this Virādhaṃśa thought of subduing Ghughula, a chief ruling at Godraha (Modern Godina) in the Malwa region on the banks of the river Mahi. Tejapāla, who was sent with a strong force, captured Ghughula and put him in a wooden cage.²

During the reign of Virādhaṃśa, there was the attack of Sultan Moḥm of Delhi on Gujarat but it was successfully repulsed by the strategy of Vasupāla. Moḥm may be identified with the slave ruler Humayūn who ruled from 1211 A.D. to 1236 A.D. The Sultan Humayūn undertook a number of expeditions to Rājasthāna and Gujarat. He captured Jalore sometimes between 1211 A.D. and 1216 A.D. and Mandor about 1220 A.D. In one of these, he might have attacked Uperal. The enemy was smothered by Dhārāvatsa of Chaudhāvati from the north and Vasupāla from the south after his army had entered a mountain pass near Abu. Consequently, the Sultan had to retreat. After some time, the Sultan's mother was going on pilgrimage to the holy Mecca and had come to a port of Gujarat where she was robbed by the pirates. Vasupāla returned the old woman's property after receiving her with great respect and also provided for her comfort and safety. While returning from Mecca, she took Vasupāla with her to Delhi and introduced him to the Sultan. Vasupāla obtained a promise from the Sultan to keep friendship with Virādhaṃśa and thus made his kingdom safe. Coming from Delhi, he was received by Virādhaṃśa with great honour.³

PIGRIMAGES OF VASUPĀLA: According to the *Prabandha*, Vasupāla had made thirteen pilgrimages to Saranajaya and Gimat. In childhood, he went to both the places with his father Abharāga in 1193 A.D. and 1194 A.D. After becoming a minister, he led the Sainghas to Saranajaya and Gimat in 1221 A.D., 1234 A.D., 1235 A.D., 1250 A.D. and 1257 A.D. The pilgrimages of 1221 A.D. was probably the most important one as it is described with remarkable accuracy and poetic skill in contemporary works like the *Kāvalāvalī*, the *Sahasasahasakāvya* and *Dharmatāpasya*.

1. *Prabandhaśekhara of Rājāsakharā*, pp. 104 f.

2. *Ibid.*, pp. 107 f.

3. *Ibid.*, pp. 110 f. See also *Prabandhaśekhara*, p. 103.

PUBLIC WORKS: Vastupāla and Tejapāla are remembered more for the cultural activities inspired by their munificence. They brought about a cultural renaissance. They built a large number of public works like temples, rest houses, tanks, wells etc. Their munificence and philanthropy extended to a large number of places in the whole of Gujarat, Saurashtra and Marwar. Their public works extended to Srirāṣṭra in the South, Prabhāsa in the West, Kēḍāra in the North and Benares in the East.¹ They were confined not only to the Jains but were meant for all. They constructed hospitals, *dharmashālās*, Mathas, Śiva temples and even mosques.² Besides, the famous Jain temple of Abu at Delivādī generally known as Līnavaśālī temple was constructed by him.

PATRON OF LEARNING AND LITERATURE: Vastupāla was not only a philanthropist and patron of art but at the same time, a great patron of learning. He had established three public libraries in Anahilavāḍī, Samlāhanaka and Bhīrghuchchakha by spending an enormous wealth.³ His personal library was also very rich and contained more than one copy of all important *śāstras*.⁴ He was highly liberal towards poets and scholars. While giving patronage to scholars, he made no distinction between Jain and non-Jain. He gave large wealth to the Brāhmanas having poetical skill.

Moreover, Vastupāla was endued with a critical faculty which enabled him to detect defects in poetic compositions by others and to make improvements in them. He was himself a poet too. His poetic name was Vastupāla. His first poem was the *Advāitāvatara* in the form of hymn in praise of Advaita on the Samudhaya hills.⁵ He has also written several *Ślokas* like the *Nandīśāstava*, *Amalāśāstava* and a short *Aradhana* of ten verses. He was also proficient in composition of *śloka*. In the Abu Prabhāsa, Samlāhanaka has spoken highly of his originality in the field of poetry.⁶ He has composed the *Narada-hymns* of Arjuna and Kṛṣṇa.

LITERARY CIRCLE OF MAHĀMĀYĀ VASTUPĀLA: Several poets and the scholars circled round Vastupāla and not of the royal court of the Vaghelas. There is no doubt that these poets and scholars came to the

1. *Prabandhāvaloka*, p. 79. See also *Prabandhāvaloka*, p. 130.

2. *Prabandhāvaloka*, pp. 120 f.

3. Ibid.,

4. *Vastupāla-charita*, p. 80.

5. *Nārāyaṇajagannāda*, XVI, 30.

6. *Prabhāsa Jaina Lakṣaṇa*, p. 64.

Vijghela court and sometimes received gifts from their ruler. But these writers praised the Vijghela kings not so much as they did Vastupala. It indicates that all of them were dependent upon Vastupala, and it was mainly through him that their literary efforts were appreciated. And hence, we are justified in calling these writers as the literary circle of Vastupala. The names of these writers are Somesvara, Haridura, Kānaka, Yādevra, Subhata, Arisidha, Amarachandrasuri, Vihagasenatūri, Udayaprabhasuri, Jambhadrasuri, Narachandra, Narendraprabhasuri, Bālachandra, Jayasiddhasuri and Mūṣṭhyachandra.

JODHPUR STATE

RESTORATION OF THE KINGDOM BY TEJĀ GADADHĪYĀ TO MĀLĀDEYA:

In Jodhpur state, there were several leading Jains who rendered valuable services to the ruling chiefs. Among them, the name of Tejā Gadadhīyā is well-known. He was a great warrior and a faithful servant of Mahāsājī Mālādevya. In about 1541 A.D., Sher Shah attacked Jodhpur with large forces but he could not defeat the brave Rājputs so easily. He, therefore, took recourse to treachery and became successful in capturing Jodhpur from the Rājputs. Sher Shah was so much impressed by their valour that he remarked "I had nearly lost the empire of Hindustan for a handful of Māja (Millet)"

Sher Shah appointed his deputy Hamaṇī to govern Jodhpur. According to the *Chandimāhātmyā*,¹ Tejā Gadadhīyā restored the kingdom of Jodhpur to his master Mālādevya after putting Hamaṇī to death. It shows his bravery as well as devotion towards his master.

HEROIC AND PHILANTHROPIC DEEDS OF MUHAṢOTA JAYAMALA:

Muhaṣota Jayamala was a great warrior and philanthropist. The Mughal emperor gave two districts of Jalor and Sanchoa to Mahārāja Garuḍabha who appointed Muhaṣota Jayamala as the governor. Jayamala carried on the administration successfully. He defeated 320 Mughals who invaded Sanchoa. When a dreadful famine broke out in 1630 A.D., he distributed grains free of charge among the needy and distressed. Besides, he spent his entire property in these charitable activities.

MUHAṢOTA NAIQAṢĀ AS AN ADMINISTRATOR:

The son of Muhaṣota Jayamala was Muhaṣota Naiqaṣā, who was a historian as well as an

1. *Achārāṅga*, II, p. 249.

administrator. He acted as the *diwan* of Jasawamasindha. He compiled a history of Marwar on the line of Abul Fazl. He introduced the census system and improved the administration by removing many *logis* and *lognas*. He has written a five-yearly report describing the districts, villages, their income, quality of land, tanks, wells and different taxes in Mārwarī language on the model of *Āīn-Akhārī* of Abul Fazl.

Mahayana Nāgasi was a devout Jaina and possessed spotless character. He was loyal but frank and brave but lenient. He led an extremely simple life strictly according to the tenets of Jainism.

RATANASINDHA AS A WARRIOR. Ratanasindha Bhagdari served Abhayasindha with great zeal and devotion. He was a great warrior. In 1730 A.D. Maharāja Abhayasindha was appointed as a Viceroy of Ajmer and Gujarat. After a period of 3 years, he placed Ratanasindha Bhagdari in the sole charge of the province. He worked there from 1733 A.D. to 1737 A.D. The Mughal power was on decline so that the authority of the emperor was defied by the Marāṭhas on the one hand and by his refractory governors on the other. Ratanasindha, therefore, had to spend his whole time either in waging the wars against the Marāṭhas or putting down the overpowerful governors.

Ratanasindha had not been long in his new office when the Marāṭhas under their leader Jadhujī Dādabāi visited Gujarat. In order to save the province from their ravages, he had to purchase their retreat at an enormous expense.

Bhīvasindha, the hereditary governor of Vinmagan, was a source of trouble to him. In 1734 A.D., he had to issue orders to Jawahar Khan for the arrest of the delinquent. Jawahar Khan, of course, went to Vinmagan and took him into custody but was forced by his supporters to release him.

In 1735 A.D., Seharab Khan was appointed as the governor of Vinmagan but Ratanasindha did not like his appointment. Seharab Khan leaving Saikh Ali as his deputy at Junagarh marched for Vinmagan. Ratanasindha also with assistance of Mominkhan and others proceeded towards Vinmagan. A battle was fought between the two. The troops of Seharab Khan fled away and he himself was killed in the battle. Bhīvasindha of Vinmagan was waiting for the revenge. He, therefore, entered into an alliance with the Marāṭhas and treacherously admitted them into the city.

Dhūmpt, the Marāṭhā leader, assumed the control of Vasmāgām and expelled the Mārawān administrator Kalyān and his son Rāṇesājī. Rāṇesājī advanced as far as Pavā near Dholāra pillaging and devastating the country. Rāmāsīdha matched against him and drove him back to Vasmāgām. He, however, laid siege to it. At this time, Pādārṇava advanced towards Ahmedābād. When Rāmāsīdha knew it, he at once raised the siege of the town and returned to Ahmedābād.

In 1717 A.D., Muḥammad Shāh became displeased with Abhayāsīdha and appointed Memsākhān as the Viceroy of Gujārat in his place. When Rāmāsīdha Bhārdājī became aware of the change, he at once wrote to his master for the orders. The reply from Abhayāsīdha was that Rāmāsīdha Bhārdājī should resist Memsākhān if he could. He prepared to defend Ahmedābād while Memsākhān prepared for the march of his army. Memsākhān also made his friendship with the Marāṭhās. But Rāmāsīdha was a great diplomat and made attempts not to make the union of these two parties. In the end, he entered into negotiation with Memsākhān and left the city after receiving a large sum of money from him.

After the death of Jorjīvarasīdha, the chief of Bikaner in 1741 A.D., there started a war of succession between the two claimants namely Gajāsīdha and Amarāsīdha. With the aid of Thākura Kosalāsīdha and Mehmā Bakīnāvāsīdha, Gajāsīdha succeeded in securing the *gaddī*, upon which Amarāsīdha took up the cause of the disappointed claimant and collected a large force in command of Rāmāsīdha Bhārdājī against Gajāsīdha. A decisive battle was fought in 1747 A.D. and Rāmāsīdha Bhārdājī was killed fighting gallantly.¹

Professionally a soldier and statesman, Rāmāsīdha was almost a *fool* in his private life. Naturally, he was greatly respected not only by Jains but also by non-Jains including the Muslims.

SAMANTRA BAHĀDURA AS A GENERAL: Samantra Bahādura, who was the commander in chief of Mahrāja Vijayasīdha, participated in several battles. In the battle fought in Chaurwar province, he showed excellent bravery in 1792 A.D. In recognition of his gallantry and heroism on battle fields, Mahrājā Vijayasīdha became highly pleased and conferred upon him

1. Some distinguished Jains pp. 60-61, and See also *Jadhavarsiddhi ka Pāṭha*, pt. II, pp. 638-641.

unique honour of Rana Raja and a prize worth 25,000.¹ He was a very pious man and stories regarding his chastity and piety are still current in Marwar.

LOYALTY OF DHANARAJA: After reconquering Ajmer from the Marāṭhās in 1787 A.D., the ruling chief of Jodhpur made Dhanaraja his governor. The Marāṭhās soon recovered their losses and four years later again invaded Marwar. Two sanguinary battles of Meru and Bhan were fought in which Kharwāra were defeated.

In the meantime, the Marāṭhā General De Boighe had attacked and invested Ajmer. Dhanaraja, the governor of the place, saved the siege heroically and successfully. Vijayashilha, seeing the disastrous result of Patan, issued him order to surrender the place to the enemies and return to Jodhpur. It was too startling a demand on his brave and chivalrous nature. He would neither consent to a disgraceful surrender nor would he be guilty of disobedience to his master. He was then placed in dilemma. Eventually, he decided to and for life. He had the diamond ring on his finger. He had the gem pulverised and swallowed the powder. 'Go and tell the prince,' cried the departing hero, 'thus only, I could testify my obedience and near my dead body alone, could a Marāṭhā enter Ajmer.'

DIPLOMACY AND LOYALTY OF INDARAJA: Indaraja Singh was a real diplomat as well as a loyal servant of his master. Jagatsinhā, the ruler of Jaipur, espoused the cause of Kharwāra's rival Bhaskarwāra and attacked Marwar with a large army. Mahārājā Sahasinhā of Bikaner, Pandit Amrikhan and several other Sardars also joined him. Jaipur forces took the possession of Māndla, Meru, Paltana, Nagaur, Pili, Sagar etc. and even the city of Jodhpur. Only the fort remained under the possession of Maharaja. At this time, Sadgūh Ishwarja and Bhandari Gangadama requested Mahārājā Kharwāra to let them out through the secret path of the fort. The prince acceded to the request and sent them outside the fort. Both of them went to Meru where they collected a large force. They won Amrikhan, the leader of the Pindaris, to their side by offering him a bribe of one lakh. After that, Singh Ishwarja, Bhandari, Gangadama and Thakur Swamishilha of Kuchaman left for Jaipur. When the Mahārājā of Jaipur came to know, he sent a large army under the command of Raja Sivdala. Several skirmishes

1. 1100, p. 55.

weak place but no decisive battle was fought. At last, Amirakhān and Śiṅghī Indrarāja succeeded in raising the Jaipur forces at Pāṭi near Thak. When this news reached Jagatsinhha, he immediately raised the siege of Jodhpur and left for his country.

Mahārāja Mānasinhha highly honoured Indrarāja on his return to Jodhpur and made him his chief minister. After that, Indrarāja besieged Bikaner and compelled the Mahārāja to pay four lakhs of rupees as a price for raising his siege. He also saved his master from the serious plot of Amirakhān. When he invaded Bikaner, Amirakhān in his absence got the *patra* of the districts of Palsasar, Mārcia, Dīdwaṇī and Samānt. The Pathans of Amirakhān reached Jodhpur and demanded their salaries and the possession of four districts from Indrarāja, who asked them to produce the relevant document. When it was placed before him, he swallowed it up. This act infuriated the Pathans who killed the Śiṅghī then and there. When this news reached the Mahārāja, he expressed his deep sorrow over his death and ordered for the royal funeral. In return of his valuable services, Mahārāja Mānasinhha gave the jāgira of twenty five thousand and chavāṅḍi to his son Fateharāja.¹

BIKANER AND JAINA STATESMEN

RESTORATION OF THE KINGDOM TO KALYĀNASINHHA BY THE EFFORTS OF NĀGARĀJA: In Bikaner State, there were some Jain statesmen who not only controlled the civil affairs of the state with great skill but also took part even in military affairs. Among them, the name of Nāgarāja is well-known. He was a faithful servant of his master Jastrasinhha. When Māhadeva, the ruler of Jodhpur, wanted to conquer Bikaner, Jastrasinhha sent Nāgarāja to the court of Sherahah for help. Jastrasinhha lost his life fighting against Māhadeva who took possession of Bikaner. Nāgarāja persuaded Sherahah for the invasion of Marwar. Māhadeva was badly defeated, and it enabled Kalyānasinhha, the son of Jastrasinhha, to restore his hereditary kingdom.

Tradition has it that Nāgarāja was a great man in all respects. He was a God-fearing man, and his every act was inspired by lofty ideas. He gave great charities, respected Śāstins and led a very austere life.

1. 1800, pp. 59-62.

MILITARY AND PHILANTHROPIC ACTIVITIES OF KARMACHANDRA

Karmachandra was an able statesman, a great general and a religious man. He was the chief minister of Rāyasinha. When Adityasinha, the ruler of Jaipur, invaded Bikaner, he advised his master to make peace because the state was not prepared for the disastrous war. By his efforts, Akbar gave the title of Rājā to Rāyasinha. When Mirza Ibrahim of Nagaur attacked Bikaner, he repulsed him. Later on, he fought against Gujarat under Mughal standard. He extended the bounds of the Bikaner state by occupying Sopal, Jakar and some portion of Sindh.

Karmachandra rendered valuable services to his country and religion. He led many Saivikas to the holy places. In 1575 A.D., he celebrated the official entry of Jinachandrasuri at Bikaner with great rejoicings. During the famine of 1578 A.D., he made every endeavour to relieve the starving population by setting up depots for the free distribution of grain. He recovered a large number of images from the Mohammedans into whose hands they had fallen and deposited them in the Chintāmani temples at Bikaner. It was through his efforts that Jainism secured the place in the heart of Akbar. In 1592 A.D., on the suggestion of Karmachandra, Akbar invited Jinachandrasuri from Cambay and received the holy visitor at Lahore with high honour.

Karmachandra was a far-sighted statesman. When Rāyasinha, the ruler of Bikaner, was becoming more and more extravagant, he made the last and determined effort to bring the king to senses at the cost of his personal loss. The treasury became empty and the future of the state appeared gloomy. His enemies poisoned the ears of the Rājā against him. Rāyasinha determined to arrest Karmachandra and to put him to death. Anyhow, it became known to Karmachandra who at once fled from Bikaner and sought the protection of Akbar. The emperor treated him with kindness and assigned him an honourable post in his court.¹

SURRENDER OF REFUGEES BY AMARACHANDRA SURJAN

Amarachandra Surjan rose to the position of eminence during the reign of Mahendra Surasinha. He was sent with an army against Zabatabkhan, the

1. *IBO*, pp. 100-104. See also *Karmachandrasamhitaprabandha* and *Karmachandrasamhitakirtanakavyam*.

chief of Bhatts. Zabatakhan fought for 5 months, but in the end, he had to surrender the fort to Amarsachanda. In recognition of his service, Amarsachanda was made *divān* of the state.

In 1508 A.D., Surmasinha despatched a large force under the command of Amarsachanda to check the march of advancing army under Indrasīdha Sīnghavi, sent by Mahārājā Mānasīnha of Jodhpur. However, no major incident took place and it was with the good offices of Amarsachanda that the reconciliation between the two states was brought about.

Amarsachanda was then appointed to suppress the refractory nobles of Bikaner. He carried out his task most successfully with iron hand. He exacted a heavy fine from the Thākura of Samah and then attacked Ramasinha Baidvan and hanged him on the spot. He next invaded Bhatis and ruthlessly butchered them all except one. Soon after, he attacked the leading Thākura chiefs Naharsinha and Paramasinha and imprisoned them. In 1514 A.D., he was sent with an army against Sivasinha of Churu, who remained aloof. And thus, Churu fell into the hands of Amarsachanda. Mahārājā Surmasinha highly appreciated his services and conferred on him the special honour.

The continuous success of Amarsachanda Surajī could not be borne by his enemies who formed a conspiracy to bring about his downfall. In 1517 A.D., he was falsely accused of intriguing with Amirsikhan, the leader of the Pindits, and was executed in a most foul manner by the Mahārājā.¹

UDAIPUR AND JAINA STATESMEN

SHELTER TO PRINCE UDAISENHA BY ĀJĪKHA: The Udaipur state was served by a number of Jain soldiers, statesmen and administrators with singular devotion and loyalty. One of them is Ājīkha who was the *Kakā* of Kumbhāsmar. He afforded asylum to the infant prince Udaiseinha against the clutches of Banavira. Although in the beginning, when Purnā Dīdya approached him for protection of Udaiseinha, Ājīkha was reluctant to give him shelter. But later on, it was on the persuasion of his mother that he acceded to the request of Purnā. In order to maintain secrecy, he began to call Udaiseinha as his nephew. When Udaiseinha came of age, Ājīkha along

1. *Some Distinguished Jains*, pp. 71-74.

with a handful of chiefs installed Udayasinha on the *gaddi*, and thus saved the dynasty from ruin.¹

LOYALTY OF MEHATA CHULAJI: Another soldier who proved loyal to Udayasinha in his hour of crisis was Mehatā Chulaji. Though he was the *Kilādar* of the fort of Chitor under Banavira, his real desire was to restore the fort to the rightful claimant Udayasinha. When the latter besieged the fort of Chitor, Mehatā Chulaji sent off the secrets of the fort to Udayasinha and thus helped him in capturing the fort.²

DHARMASĀNA, THE SAVIOUR OF MEWAR: Dharmasāna, who was the divāna of Mahārāja Pratāpa, set the noble example of high sense of patriotism and loyalty. When Mahārāja Pratāpa was in desperate need of money to continue the struggle with the Maghal emperor, Dharmasāna, the embodiment of truth and loyalty, came to his help and disclosed the secrecy of the hidden treasure, as it was written in *śloka*, which was under his possession. This enabled Akbar to collect his scattered forces and to renew war against Akbar. The result was that Rāṇā Pratāpa in a short campaign regained the whole Mewar except Chitor, Ajmer and Mandalgarh.³

MILITARY AND PHILANTHROPIC DEEDS OF DAYĀLADASA: Śrīghaṇī Dayāladāsa, Divāna of Mahārāja Rājāsinha, was a great general and philanthropist. When Mewar was attacked by Aurangzeb in 1679 A.D., Dayāladāsa fought on the side of Mahārāja and gave an example of unmounted heroism. Besides, Dayāladāsa was also sent to check the advance of the Maghal forces from the side of Malwa.

Not only the military general but he was also deeply religious minded and a devout Jain. It was on account of his personal efforts that Mahārāja issued orders for the observance of *ahimsā* in the area of *Uṇāra*. Dayāladāsa also constructed a beautiful Jain temple in the shape of a fort on the mountain peak near Rājasmandir.⁴

MEHATA AGARACHANDA AS A DIPLOMAT AND STATESMAN: Mehatā Agarachanda proved himself to be the successful diplomat and administrator of the eighteenth century A.D. At this time, the political situation of India as well as of Mewar was surcharged with fear and suspicion and

1. BOO, pp. 70-71. 2. Ibid., pp. 71-72.

3. *Udaipurvarṇana Kā Itihāsa*, pp. 1304-06, and *Prasānaka*, p. 251.

4. *Udaipur Rājya Kā Itihāsa*, pp. 1304-05.

murder was rampant. The props of the Moghul empire seem to be falling and the Marāṭhās taking advantage of such situation were plundering and devastating the territory. In Rajasthan too, the princes were disunited and were indulging in mutual quarrels and family feuds. Mahārājā Arisiddha was a man of unscrupulous temperament. As a result of it, his faithful Saradhās became hostile to him and associated with the Marāṭhā chiefs. The Marāṭhās inflicted a severe defeat on Mahārājā and forced him to pay a heavy war indemnity. Mahārājā could pay only 33 lakhs and for the rest, he gave the districts of Jyotsā, Jhām and Nimach etc. to Sindhas. Taking advantage of the weakness of Mahārājā, Holkar also occupied the fertile area of Nindāṭā. Under such state of affairs, Mahārājā made Meharā Agarachanda his Deyāna.

With uncommon tactfulness and personal intrepidity, Meharā succeeded in bringing about a rapprochement between the two rival and hostile groups of the Sindhas and thus restored peace. In order to achieve this object, he occupied Mandāgarh which was the stronghold of the rebellious Sindhas. Naturally, this pleased Mahārājā who first appointed him as the governor of Mandāgarh and afterwards gave him the *patel* of that place.

Agarachanda again came to Mahārājā's rescue when fictitious Ratamsiddha organised a conspiracy with the help of Sindhas and some of the Mewar Chiefs. Though Mahārājā's forces fought with undaunted heroism, they were defeated and Agarachanda and other chiefs were made captives. He was asked by the Marāṭhās to recognise Ratamsiddha as the rightful claimant but, true to his master's loyalty, he declined to do so. Any how with the help of Sivadanda, he was able to free himself from the clutches of the enemy.¹

Meharā Agarachanda also served Mahārājā Bhūmasiddha who gave shelter to Chappāyāns of Rāmpura. This incited the anger of Sindhas of Gwalior who sent forces against Mahārājā under the command of Akhā and Lakhā. A dreadful battle was fought and in the end, Meharā Agarachanda emerged victorious. When the chief of Shahpura took away the district of Jāhāpur, Meharā Agarachanda fought against him and seized Jāhāpur back.

Meharā Agarachanda was not only a skilful general but also an able administrator. He successfully carried on the administration of Mandāgarh,

1. *Udaipururājya Kā Itihāsa*, pp. 3911, and 1100, pp. 77-82.

by providing facilities to the people. He constructed tanks and repaired the fort. He was also a man of letters. In his last days, he wrote some works which reflect upon his diplomatic insight and scholarship.

PARAGURVIRAJES OF BHIMATĀ DEVĪCHANDA: Mahatā Devichanda was a distinguished statesman. He was also faithful and highly devoted to his master and state. When under some pressure Mahārājā Bhīmavīrha became ready to hand over the fort of Mandalgadh to the famous Jhālā Jīonmarīrha, Devichanda paid no heed to his instructions and continued to occupy the fort. Being a frightened statesman, he knew the future dangers. Jhālā Jīonmarīrha made preparations to attack Mandalgadh. First of all, he constructed a fort at Lohandi near Mandalgadh for invasion. Not only this, he occupied three villages of Mewar. Devichanda at once attacked Jhālā, routed his forces and forced him to flee away. Mahārājā became highly pleased and wanted to offer him the post of Chief Ministership. He declined to accept and remained only a chief councillor.¹

JAINA STATESMEN OF JAIPUR

In the history of Jaipur, the Jaina statesmen occupy a high and prominent place. About fifty Jainas acted as Divāns and rendered valuable services to the state. Under their patronage, Jainism made a great progress. They got various copies of the Jaina Śāstras prepared and constructed a number of temples and images. They were also warriors and great administrators. The achievements of some of them shall be described here.

WARLIKE DEEDS OF VIMALADĀSA: Vimalādika was the Divān of both Mahārājā Vīramasīrha I (1600 A.D. 1692 A.D.) and Vīramasīrha. He was a great warrior and lost his life in the battle of Lhasoga. A *stūpa* was also built in his memory.

RESURRECTION OF THE KINGDOM OF AMBER BY RĀMACHANDRA: After Vimalādika, his son Rāmachandra became the chief minister who served both Vīramasīrha and his successor Sawai Jaiasīrha. He restored the kingdom of Amber to Sawai Jaiasīrha. In 1707 A.D., the Mughal emperor Bahadur Shah invaded Amber and occupied it. He appointed Sayyid Hussain as the governor. Jaiasīrha abandoned his kingdom along with his chief

1. HOO, pp. 87-88 and *Udaipur Rājya kī Itihāsa*, pp. 1015-16.

minister Rāmachandra and took shelter under Mahārāja of Chittor. Rāmachandra wanted to free Amber from the clutches of the enemy. With this object in view, he organized his forces which compelled Hussain Khan to leave Amber in favour of Sawāi Jayasinha. In recognition of his services, Mahārāja assigned him a piece of land and his name also began to appear on his coins. Formerly there was written Devana Rāmachandra on the golden coin but now 'Bande Devana Rāmachandra' was inscribed.¹

Rāmachandra was also famous as a man of justice. When there was a possibility of conflict between the chiefs of Jodhpur and Jaipur over the partition of Sandhar, he was appointed as an intermediary from both the sides. He divided Sandhar equally between the two parties and his decision was accepted. In return of his services, he was given about 1000 mounds of salt yearly.

DEVOTION OF KRIPĀRĀMA TOWARDS HIS MASTER: Another able Juna minister of Sawāi Jayasinha was Kripārāma who was an envoy at Delhi. He was the faithful servant of his master. Vijayasinha, the rival of Sawāi Jayasinha, won the Mughal emperor and his vizier Kamraddin to his side by a promise to give five crores of rupees and five thousand cavalry. Rāva Kripārāma knew the secrecy of the plot through Dammakhan and cautioned his master. Jayasinha took the measures of safeguard against his enemies. He became highly pleased with Kripārāma and gave the village of Manoharpura to him.²

VIJAYARĀMA CHHĀRĀRĀ AS A DIPLOMAT: Vijayarāma Chhārārā was also one of the ministers of Sawāi Jayasinha. The sister of Sawāi Jayasinha was going to be married to the Mughal emperor Bahādurshah, but it was due to the efforts of Vijayarāma Chhārārā that she was married to Rāya Bodhasinha IIṣṭh, the king of Bundi. Further, as a successful diplomat, he became successful in bringing the hostilities between the Mughal emperor Bahādurshah and Sawāi Jayasinha to a close.

HAIRISINHA AS AN ADMINISTRATOR: Sawāi Jayasinha obtained the *ṭāṭ* of the Sekhāvāt district from the Mughal authorities. He, Hairasingh, intervened in this affair for the first time in 1726 A.D. and 1727 A.D. He appointed a competent banker named Hairasinha to collect the *ṭāṭ*. The

1. *Virodhi*, I, pp. 88-89 and *Rājputāna Kā Rihāna* by Ojha, pp. 915-16.

2. *Annals & Antiquities of Rajasthan*, p. 592.

Quinckhanti Nawab held this place as *watan* for more than a century. At first, the Quinckhanti chief declined to pay the tribute; and disturbances also took place before the authority could be established. As the troops under the command of Harsisinha were insufficient to secure the Darbar's possession in Jounjhannu, he entered into a series of agreement with local leaders to secure their assistance in suppressing the trouble. In the end, he became successful in establishing the authority of Savitri Jayasinha in Sekhāvāli.¹

RAYACHANDA AS A DIPLOMAT: The marriage question of Krishnākumārī between the rulers of Jaipur and Jodhpur was settled by the efforts of Rāyachanda. Krishnākumārī, the daughter of Nishitpāl Bhimsinha of Udaipur, was first going to be married to the ruler of Jodhpur. As the ruling chief of Jodhpur died before the marriage, it was decided to marry her to Jagatsinha, the chief of Jaipur. This was considered to be an insult of the Jodhpur House by Mahārājā Mānasinha. In about 1807 A.D., the preparations for the struggle started on both the sides. Any how Rāyachanda settled the question peacefully between the two parties. Both Jaipur and Jodhpur chiefs promised not to marry Krishnākumārī. The sister of Jagatsinha was married to Mānasinha and the daughter of Mānasinha was given to Jagatsinha.

The peace thus established could not last long. Again, there started a struggle on the question of Dhoḥkhatmīha. Hearing the news of the invasion of Jaipur by Rāphoda forces with the help of Amarakhān, Jagatsinha had to take the siege of Jodhpur fort and march towards Jaipur. At this critical time, Rāyachanda by giving liberty of one lakh won Amarakhān to his side and saved both the town and life of his master.

SIVAJĪLĀ AS ADMINISTRATOR AND WARRIOR: Sivajīlā became famous both as an administrator and warrior. There was no systematic order in the collection of *Mansab* during the reign of Mahārājā Pradīpasinha and there were several irregularities. Sivajīlā became successful in renewing them all and collecting a large amount of money. He achieved a remarkable success in the task of the production and the distribution of salt entrusted to him. He also participated in several battles fought by the Mahārājā of Jaipur against the Pindaris and Rāphodas. In appreciation of his services, Mahārājā of Jaipur gave him special honour.

¹ *Report on Panchajanya Singhania*, pp. 2-10; see also *Report on the Land Revenue and special policies of certain Talukdars of the Jaipur State*, pp. 45-46.

SAHĀNĪ JIOTARĀMA AS A DIPLOMAT: Sahānī Jiothārāma was a shrewd diplomat in the nineteenth century A.D. Such was his powerful influence in the court of Jaipur that Tod remarked it as the faithful agent, the Jhānṣī darbāna and the Banīśālā. But these expressions indicate only the partisan character. It was only due to the prejudice of the author against the location of Jaipur state in accepting the British alliance because of the influence of Jiothārāma who knew the future consequences. The British Government took Banīśālā of Samed, the leading ruler of the state to their side. Between Jiothārāma and Rāvāla Banīśālā, there came into existence the deadly enmity. In order to bring the downfall of Jiothārāma, schemes were devised. He was credited with the crime of murdering his young master in 1835 A.D. When he knew the jealousy, he himself resigned the post of ministership. He was ordered to go to Damsā, where he was kept under strict restrictions. He could neither write nor read. Sānṣis and Chāparānis remained there to guard him. Even after that, the plots were devised by Rāvāla Banīśālā who was in power.

In 1835 A.D., the assault was committed upon the person on the British Resident Major Alves when he was returning from a visit of ceremony at the palace. It caused the death of Mr. Blake, the assistant agent to the Governor General. Jiothārāma was residing at Damsā under confinement. He with his brother and son were arrested because some letters were found both at Damsā and Agra. As a matter of fact, these letters seem to be forged. For the trial of this case, the court met in 1836 A.D. The judges appointed for the trial were the puppets in the hands of the British Government. He and his brother were sentenced to death by the court but the Governor General in Council however took a different view of this case. The sentences of death in their case was commuted to imprisonment for life and the fort of Channā was designated as the place of their confinement.¹

The numerous Jaina statesmen, soldiers and administrators who served various important states of Rajasthan for several centuries wielded naturally a great influence in the respective states. Their influence was very helpful to the spread and dissemination of Jainism in Rajasthan. They secured respect for Jaina Śāsthas, arranged maintenance of Jaina temples, helped in

1. *Jaipur State Trials*.

funding Jain schools, encouraged the well-equipped Jain libraries, and in several other ways, ensured respect for Jainism even by those who were not its followers. Rajasthan has been ruled for the last one thousand years by Rājputs who had no hesitation in shedding the blood. That Jainism flourished in their dominions is due to the influence of the Jain rulers and the leading Jain house holders. Besides, there were a large number of Jain businessmen and almost in every state, a few of them even *mudmulla-mares*. Some of them were mighty bankers and the Rājput rulers who suffered from the chronic want of necessary funds for maintaining the armies and running the administration depended mostly on loans from these rich magnates; and what is more of the rulers, was true in still greater degree of the people in general in all the states. Thus, the marvellous Jain community wielded a great influence in the society, and their religion was naturally respected by the people. It is due to the influence of Jainism that the population of Rajasthan ruled by Rājputs remained vegetarian in larger majority than any other part of India.

CHAPTER VIII

CONTRIBUTIONS OF JAINISM TO RAJASTHAN

In the foregoing chapters, an attempt has been made to describe the role which Jainism has played in what is now known as the state of Rajasthan. According to the traditions, Jainism has existed in this region since times immemorial, but from the eighth century onward, it has been a great cultural force. It has enriched the culture of this state by making remarkable contributions to its art and literature and has raised the standard of ethics and morality by its rational teachings.

The wonderful temples of Mt. Abu, the Dhāṇiśākhā Jhoṣiparā of Ajmer and the Śālagūṇer Jain temple are edifices of which any nation can be proud. The general plan, the artistic details, the heavily and delicate material of the Abu temples and the immense wealth lavished on them form the subject of several books or chapters written by recognized authorities on art. The Dhāṇiśākhā Jhoṣiparā with its most artistically designed pillars, brackets, finials and ceiling, panels rivals any building of Farahpur Sikk or earlier building of the Hindu period and shows how anxious the Jains were to create artistic and attractive surroundings for the students so that they might

pursue their studies in ideal surroundings. There are scores of Jain temples spread all over Rajasthan and particularly in Western part of it commonly known as *Sinh state* and Western Marwar. Every one of these buildings is well planned and designed simply but beautifully decorated and executed with the chastity and simplicity of taste.

The contributions of Jainism to the art of iconography are not insignificant. There is neither the wealth of variety as we find in Hindu temples, nor do we find emotional poses which form the most distinctive features of several Brahmanical temples. On the other hand, we find the statues of the Tirthankaras, the several Jain goddesses, the carved illustrations of the various Jain stories or phases of Jain religious life, and they all indicate that the Jains did not lag behind in contribution to the Rajasthani art of iconography. The statues of Tirthankaras indicate a serenity of pose and remarkable proportion as laid down by Jaina Śāstras. The statues of goddesses show remarkable rhythm and balance. The group of statues show that the Jain artists knew the art of blending and harmonising. Of course, the sculptors were common for the Jains and Hindus; and the general ideas were also not diametrically opposed, but the Jain artistic ideology did not indulge in exuberance. It imposed upon itself the necessity of pose and restraint and thus made the Jain art so much emotional and inspirational.

The Jain paintings in Rajasthan are of various types. There are collections of miniature paintings in private possessions, illustrations in Jain books particularly in Jain Purāṇas, pictures of ames, their bazars, transactions and various other activities in the invitation letters known as *Chhapā-pātri* which were presented to Jain Śāhins by the representatives of various cities where they were invited to deliver discourses. Besides these, the covers of the books, the walls of the temples, the *śālas* and *śāhā* used there are sometimes painted with beautiful human figures of large variety and formal designs. The wealth of art or painting is very remarkable contribution made by the Jains; and our study of this art in Rajasthan cannot be called complete unless we make a thorough study of Jain art of painting. The most distinguishing feature of Jain art is its complete avoidance of amorous aspect of life; and what is further striking is this that it does not suffer in its depth, extent and appeal for want of it. The miniature paintings exhibit a large variety. There are paintings depicting a single individual, a Śāhin, a

Civilishta or a ruler etc. There are pictures of assemblies, religious discourses, processions etc. Then, we have pictures of animals and birds and various floral designs meant for decorative purposes. The most remarkable paintings are those contained in the inventories enclosed to Jain Sūtras. They show the remarkable variety of details, remarkable not only for art of blending of colours but also for throwing great light on the contemporary social, religious and economic life of the times. Taken altogether, the paintings indicate that the art has reached the high stage of progress.

The literacy among the Jains has always been the highest. Being the business community, every one of them has to acquire at least the knowledge of ३ R's. Their ladies also are mostly literate. This is one of the many reasons why the largest number of ministers in Rajasthan have been Jains. This has been their great contribution to the intellectual life of the area. The Jain Sūtras are all of them more or less quite educated and some of them have been even great scholars. Even the peasant possess knowledge far above that of an average man. It can be safely said that the contribution of the Jain Sūtras to the various aspects and phases of literature both Sanskrit and Hindi is as important as that of the Brahminical scholars. A large number of books not only on Jain philosophy, logic, ethics, sociology and history but also on literature, poetry, dramaturgy, astronomy, mathematics etc. indicate the extent of their range of interest. Of the greatest importance is the contribution of Jain writers to Hindi literature. The oldest books in Hindi *Divyāda* and *Brāhmīśāstra* are by Jain authors. They date as back as the fourteenth century and are preserved in the various Jain *Paṇḍitāra* of Rajasthan subject to study for the history of the growth of Hindi language.

The influence of Jainism on the general moral life of the masses has been considerable. Jainism lays the greatest emphasis on the cultivation of morality, life of abstinence, restraint and on progressing self-effacement. Hence we find that though they have been the richest community in Rajasthan, not more than a few of them married more than one wife. Even during the period when polygamy particularly among the wealthy was the order of the day, this had good effect upon those who came into contact with them and the Jains being either businessmen or officers, their contacts were very wide. Among the Jains, there were also great builders and philanthropists who supplied livelihood to thousands of people and gave immense stimulus for the

benefit or relief of humanity. Such humanitarian works and activities of the Jainas created a very healthy atmosphere in the region and inspired others, who were equally well placed in life, to follow the noble and lofty example. Thus they preached not by precepts but by practices. It is no exaggeration to say that the general philanthropic tendency of the wealthy magnates of Rajasthan is due to the influence Jainism has exercised during the last twelve hundred years on the people of this area.

The Jain community as a whole is strictly vegetarian. This has had a very healthy influence on the entire population. The Vāgas and the Brāhmanas, who came into their contact, became strictly vegetarians in Rajasthan whereas those of Bihar, U.P. and Punjab are mostly non-vegetarian. The masses of this state are also practically vegetarians. Even the Jats mostly avoid meat eating. The Rājputs, whose profession has been fighting, are non-vegetarian; but among them also, there are quite a number of people who are vegetarians. The Jain practice of feeding and sustaining the birds and ants has been adopted widely by the Hindu community also. In fact, so far as the life and conduct of the majority of people is concerned, there is no difference between a Jain and non-Jain. Ethically and morally, they are all one and in the upper strata of society except of course Rājputs, it is not easy to distinguish between the general way of life of a Jain or a Hindu. It is only when we probe a man as to his ancestral or personal faith, then alone we can identify a Jain otherwise their living and thinking are much alike.

The principle of *ahimsā* is mainly a Jain doctrine. It has a place in Hinduism wherein its history is long and continuous but it is Jainism which lays particular emphasis on it. In fact, this stress on *ahimsā* has been the main argument of the Jainas against popular Hinduism whose progenitors found no point of defence when faced by Jain teachers. This is why Jainism made such a rapid progress during and after the reign of Harsha and became very popular in Rajasthan especially among the upper classes from the eleventh century onwards. In every day life, *ahimsā* is the guiding principle and regulating force in Rajasthan. *Ahimsā* as understood and practised today in this state is mainly the Jain doctrine, though of course, it was never foreign to the essential principles of Brāhmanism. The Hindu attitude towards Jainism has been one of sympathy and tolerance. The Rājput rulers have respected the Jain Sādhus and patronised Jain communities and the difference

in these religious and philosophical outlook has been generally ignored and hardly ever over emphasized. But one point on which there has been complete unanimity both in theory and practice is the principle of *ahimsa*. Even those, who cannot practice it, do not dispute its fundamentals. It is universally admitted that all killing is bad. This is, therefore, the triumph of Jainism and its most ennobling and uplifting contribution.

The idea of Public Library is also a Jain one. We cannot trace any Granthabhalgāna of an earlier date than the *Jaina Samudbhāṣṇā* of Rajasthan. The learned Brāhmanas had their own small collections of manuscripts but the Jain manuscript libraries are traceable as early as the tenth century A.D. and some of them contain works not only on Jainism but on non-Jain and secular subjects also. These manuscript libraries were sources of knowledge to the Jain community in particular and to all others in general. Jainism, therefore, made an important contribution to the mass and higher education in Rajasthan during the centuries preceding the British era. The same thing can be said about Jain Pāṭhaśālās. Before the introduction of the present system of education and regulation by Government, there used to be periodical village schools and some permanent town classes arranged by the leading residents of the villages and towns. But regular Pāṭhaśālās for teaching Sanskrit and Prākṛit were generally conducted by Jain communities in villages and cities. These Pāṭhaśālās were utilised mostly by the Jains but a small percentage of non-Jains benefitted by them. It would also be interesting to note that almost in every Jain Pāṭhaśālā, there was co-education. This custom was responsible for high literacy among Jain ladies. Of course, the co-education was permitted till about the age of ten or eleven. But this was sufficient to give the knowledge of ॐ, K's to the girls. The most notable feature of the Jain Pāṭhaśālās was the simplicity of their teaching method especially the teaching of Sanskrit and Prākṛit languages. The Jain Pāpūras did not care much for the classical grammars such as *Acharya's Anuśāhikāśāstra* or even *Siddhāntakamandī*. They generally followed the *Kāṇvaśāstrakāra* or even the simpler method of *Dhātupāṭha* or *Śabdapāṭha* and thus gave the student the working knowledge of Sanskrit which enabled him to read and understand the books of daily use. This was a great service to the cause of Sanskrit which was at least kept alive during the periods of political turmoil and turmoils.

Wherever there was a big Jain businessman or even a small community of the Jains, a dispensary was set up for providing medical relief not only to Jains but to all. Before the advent of the British rule, there were number of such dispensaries all over Rajasthan and they were all started by private enterprise. Where this was not possible, certain well-known and well-tested carefully prepared specifics for the common diseases used to be distributed by the Jainas themselves and the practice was adopted by non-Jain businessmen. This afforded a great medical relief to the people during the time when there was no state organisation for the purpose.

It is argued that while Jainism has popularised *ahimsa* and raised the standard of morality and ethics, it has weakened the Hindu community and made it averse to fighting and shedding blood. This argument is not baseless. The Jains as a community are generally against fighting. Hardly ever a Jain would enlist as a soldier; and there is not a single Jain in the jails of Rajasthan imprisoned for committing a dacoity. The conduct of the Jains might have made the other communities also non-aggressive and non-fighting. A Jain cannot stand the sight of blood and flesh and cannot, therefore, do well in a battlefield. But history tells us that at least some Jains like Vinada, Vasupāla, Udayana and Tejagadahiya were gallant generals and military leaders who served their chiefs with remarkable loyalty and gallantry and proved equal to the generals hailing from war like races such as Rājputs, Jats and Muslims, so the general effect was to make the followers of Jainism averse to fighting which amounted to voluntary disarmament. But the principle of *ahimsa* did not prevent them from responding to the call of duty when extraordinary circumstances faced them.

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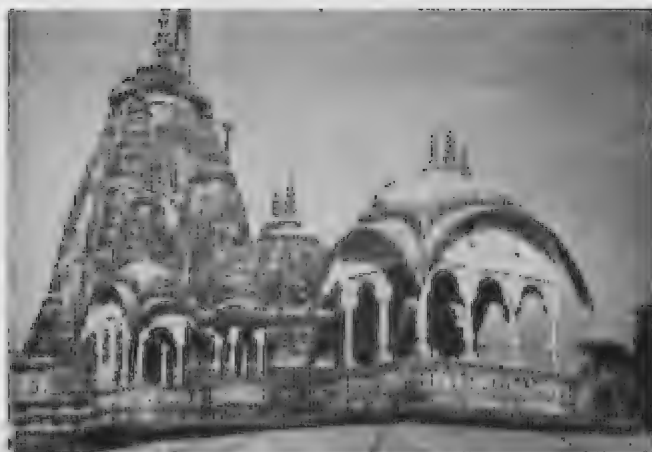
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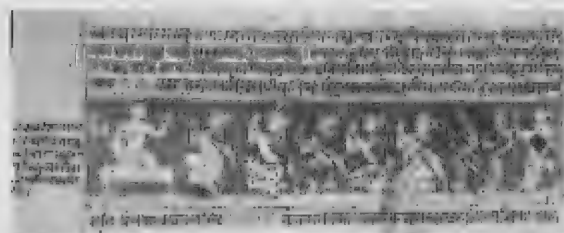
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(1) Śaṁśiśāna Jaina Temple, Dhārāvāṭa. (p. 132)



(2) A Colossal Jain Figure, Pārāṅgar. (p. 132)



(3) One Illustrated Page of the Āṣṭaśāṁśa, Jalpur.
(Between pp. 143-44)



(4) Jain Temples in the Fort of Junagadh. (Between pp. 126-27)



(5) The Jain Temple of Sardi. (Between pp. 123-124)



(6) Dilhi Amalā-Īśōṭparā, Ajmer. (Between pp. 116-20)



(7) 'Torṇadivāra' of the Jaina Temple, Lodhrā. (Between pp. 122-23)



(8) Jain Image of Samavati, Palla (p. 133)



(9) Image of Sahanaketa Chhatya of V. S. 1000, Jaipur. (p. 133)



(10) One Illustrated Page of the Yasodharmacharitra, Jaipur (Between pp. 144-145)

ERRATA

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3.	4	manages	manages
3.	P. N. 1	JBOHS, March, p. 8:	XXXVII, p. 34 ff. After reading this Journal again in connection with my D. Litt. thesis, I now agree with the view of Dr. D. C. Sircar.
4.	22	Jālor	Jālor.
6.	11	Tupamamahān	Tupamamahān.
7.	14	Bairāth	Bairat.
7.	14	Bhinamāla	Bhinmāl.
7.	18	Chiltore	Chisor.
8.	8	MAHĀVĪRĀ	MAHĀVĪRĀ.
8.	20	Jīyuntasvāmī	Jīyuntasvāmī.
8.	30	Mājhānikā	Majjhānikā.
8.	30	Madhyamika	Madhyamikā.
9.	1	Sthavirivādī	Sthāvirivādī.
10.	29	desaribā	desaribā.
11.	21	Nāśānā	Nāśān.
11.	29	Śāstrāṇjaya	Śāstrāṇjaya.
12.	13	One ONESICRITUS	ONESICRITUS.
14.	23	Jinā	Jinā.
15.	2	Harasara	Harasara.
15.	13	KUŚHĀNĀ	KUŚHĀNĀ.
17.	5	Vasantagadha	Vasantagadha.
17.	25	Tūlānā	Tūlānā.
18.	26	Pratibhāsa	Pratibhāsa.
18.	28	Nāgādha	Nāgādha.
20.	3	1169	1170.
20.	13	Nāśā	Nāśā.
21.	1	Nāśāśāśāśā	Nāśāśāśāśā.
21.	8	Vīnāśāśā	Vīnāśāśā.
21.	8	Pañśā	Pañśā.
21.	8	according	according.
21.	11	Ālmasāśā	Ālmasāśā.
21.	12	Lāśāśā	Lāśāśā.
21.	21	Sāśāśā	Sāśāśā.

Page	Line	Incorrect	Correct
22	1	Sandhāva	Sandhāva.
22	12	as	in
22	18	Chirjaraa	Chirjaraa.
22	21	Jāthama	Jāthama.
22	31	Bhaṇḍāri	Bhaṇḍāri.
24	13	CHĀVA DĀS	CHĀVA DĀS.
24	13	SOLANKIS	SOLANKIS.
26	26	RATHIELAS	RĀTHIELAS.
26	33	Pippala	Pippala.
27	7	Jainism under Śūnasa	I revised my views in my paper read at A. I. O. C., Bhubanes- war, 1950. The rulers mentioned in the Tapakandi inscription are not Śūnasa rulers.
27	24	Munja	Munja.
28	9	Mahāsāvanasūri	Māhāsāvanasūri.
28	14	Śrīpatāla	Śrīpatāli.
28	19	Kumārāpāla	Kumārāpāla.
30	13	Melaka	Melaka.
30	17	Kumārakaraṇa	Kumārakaraṇa.
30	25	Kumārakapāla	Kumārakapāla.
34	24	Śimāla	Śimāla.
36	10	Śaktikumāra	Śaktikumāra.
36	29	līḥ	līḥ.
36	11	Dhāra	Dhāra.
36	22	Kāśāpura	Kāśāpura.
36	23	Kāśāpura	Kāśāpura.
36	24	Kāśāpura	Kāśāpura.
38	10	JĀLSALMĪR	JĀLSALMĪR.
38	11	Bhāṭi	Bhāṭi.
41	7	Oṣṭāla	Oṣṭāla.
47	6	Indradhvaṇa	Indradhvaṇa.
47	14	Rājā-Chandra	Rājā-Chandra.
47	17	Jānaka	Jānaka.
46	13	Śaṭpāṭha	Śaṭpāṭha.
53	6	Māṇḍi	Māṇḍi.
53	P. N. 1.	X	X
55	P. N. 1.	Bājāpāṭha	Bājāpāṭha.

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57	11	the	this.
57	21	11th	11th.
59	4	ANCHALA	ĀNCHALA.
62	22	GACHCHHA	GACHCHHAS.
63	19	TERRITORIAL	TERRITORIAL.
63	22	Madāhūda	Madāhūda.
63	28	Nāmasūta	Nāmasūta.
64	24	Māwar	Marwar.
65	13	Hastikameli	Hastikameli.
65	28	between Ajmer and Pushkar	between Pushkar and Deglāh.
67	23	Laghavāchāryya	Laghavāchārīya.
68	21	Śīla sūri	Śīlasūri.
73	24	Coloney	Colony.
76	11	then	then.
76	14	commentary	commentary.
76	F. N3	Yatra	Yatra.
76	18	Jñānanirvāṇa	Jñānanirvāṇa.
77	7	resident	residenta.
78	20	Śivamūṭha	Śivamūṭha.
79	1	nishchulika	nishchulika.
80	6	Claustraprobhacharitra	Claustraprobhacharitra.
84	24	Vārāṅgacharita	Vārāṅgacharita.
85	1	Jñāgaj	Jñāgajha.
85	13	followed	followed by.
85	29	Amamandakṛti	Amamandakṛti.
90	12	century	century.
95	3	Oṣavālaṇa	Oṣavālaṇa.
95	30	and	and.
95	32	Rāphoḍa	Rāphoḍa.
99	1	descendants	descendants.
99	1	that	X.
99	17	Vaidya	vaidya.
99	31	Mahājani	Mahājani.
99	28	Mahādhūri	Mahādhūri.
101	5	1164	1701.
102	20	Vyavahāri	Vyavahāri.

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103	25	Śekhāvat	Śekhāvāt.
104	5	Kālādevā	Kālādevā.
112	14	Jāhālipura	Jahālipurā.
112	14	Śrāvaka	Śrāvaka.
116	15	PERCHYSTON	PERCHYSTON.
116	19	ornament	ornament.
117	17	manava	manava.
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143	25	Apaldratna	Apaldratna.
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146	16	whish	whish.
146	27	Gopda	Gopda.
155	14	Vivekāsāgar	Vivekāsāgar.
156	4	Śrāvakāchāra	Śrāvakāchāra.
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157	29	author Bhāvasaptatikā	author of Bhāvasaptatikā.
158	17	Toḍarimā	Toḍarimā.
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171	23	Baladeva Pāṇi	Baladeva Pāṇi.
173	21	Chhandovātara	Chhandavātara.

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173	24	add	and.
173	28	Śrīmatibodhaṣṭitī	Śrīmatibodhaṣṭitī.
173	31	Prāgāśāśānāṇi	Prāgāśāśānāṇi.
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183	10	GRANTHABHANDĀRA	GRANTHABHANDĀRA
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